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FIRST LINES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY GOOLD BROWN.

WILLIAM WOOD & COMPANY.
56 AND 58 LAFAYETTE PLACE.
NEW YORK.

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THE

FIRST LINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

BEING A

BRIEF ABSTRACT OF THE AUTHOR'S LARGER WORK,

THE

"INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

DESIGNED FOR YOUNG LEARNERS.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

GOOLD BROWN,
AUTHOR OF THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS.

A NEW AND REVISED EDITION,

ARRANGED TO FORM A SERIES OF

LANGUAGE LESSONS,

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

BY HENRY KIDDLE, A.M.,
LATE SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

NEW YORK:
WILLIAM WOOD & COMPANY,
56 & 58 LAFAYETTE PLACE.
1882

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THE excellence of BROWN'S GRAMMARS, both as treatises and school manuals, has been very generally acknowledged; but the system of instruction embodied therein has been found to be at variance, in some important respects, with that most generally in use at the present time, and favored by the best educators. Experience has shown that mere parsing, however familiar it may render the pupil with definitions and rules, by mechanical repetition, does not fully attain the most important end of grammatical instruction, which is to make the learner expert and accurate in the use of language, as well as intelligent in respect to its principles and rules.

In the present edition of these grammars, the more modern system of instruction has been introduced; the exercises of *construction* and *composition*, which have been inserted in connection with those of analysis and parsing, rendering the whole virtually a series of LANGUAGE LESSONS, and thus insuring to the learner a good practical acquaintance with his mother tongue. The carefully arranged exercises in correction, or *False Syntax*, under each rule, will greatly contribute to this result.

The arbitrary method of presenting elaborate definitions without any previous development of the ideas on which they depend, has been also changed, by the insertion of carefully constructed *development lessons*, so that nothing, either in the use of terms or the expression of thought, may anticipate the needed explanation. In this respect, the work has been made to embody the outlines of a system of *oral teaching*.

Numerous corrections and alterations have been made, but not such as to interfere essentially with the original system of grammar contained in these works, but with the exclusive object of adapting them to a more approved system of practical instruction. The improvement in the typography of this new edition will not fail to commend the books to general favor.

With these alterations, the publishers hope that these works will be found more useful to the public, and a more valuable aid to teachers in imparting instruction in this really important branch of education.

NEW YORK, May 1, 1882.

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ORIGINAL PREFACE.

THE following epitome contains a general outline of the principles of our language, as embodied and illustrated in "The Institutes of English Grammar." The definitions and explanations here given, are necessarily few and short. The writer has endeavored to make them as clear as possible, and as copious as his limits would allow; but it is plainly impracticable to crowd into the compass of a work like this, all that is important in the grammar of our language. Those who desire a more complete elucidation of the subject are invited to examine the author's larger work.

For the use of young learners, small treatises are generally preferred to large ones; because they are less expensive to parents, and better adapted to the taste and capacity of children. A small treatise on Grammar, like a small map of the world, may serve to give the learner a correct idea of the more prominent features of the subject; and to these his attention should at first be confined; for, without a pretty accurate knowledge of the general scheme, the particular details and nice distinctions of criticism can neither be understood nor remembered.

The only successful method of teaching grammar, is, to cause the principal definitions and rules to be committed thoroughly to memory, that they may ever afterward be readily applied. And the pupil should be alternately exercised in learning small portions of his book, and then applying them in parsing, till the whole is rendered familiar.

The learner who shall thus go through this little work, will, it is imagined, acquire as good a knowledge of the subject as is to be derived from any of the abridgments used in elementary schools. And, if he is to pursue the study further, he will then be prepared to read with advantage the more copious illustrations and notes contained in the larger work, and to enter upon the various exercises adapted to its several parts.

This work is in no respect necessary to the other, as it contains the same definitions, and pursues the same plan. The use of it in the early stages of pupilage will preserve a more expensive book from being soiled and torn; and the scholar's advancement to the larger work may be expected to increase his pleasure and accelerate his progress in the study.

GOOLD BROWN.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

SINCE the completion and publication of my Grammar of English Grammars, it has frequently been suggested to me, that a new and critical revision of the Institutes and First Lines, to present them in a state of stricter conformity to that more elaborate work, and to obviate at the same time some remaining defects which had occasionally been noticed, might be the means of increasing the usefulness, and sustaining the reputation of these pretty widely known school-books. Such an improvement of the Institutes the author carefully prepared for the stereotypers during the last year. Having now performed, in like manner, and with proportionate pains, a new revision, or a sort of recasting, of the First Lines of English Grammar, he may perhaps, without lack of modesty, commend this little book to the managers of schools, as being, in his own estimation at least, the best and cheapest epitome of English Grammar yet offered to their choice.

GOOLD BROWN.

LYNN, MASS., 1855.

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PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

DEVELOPMENT AND TEXT LESSONS.

The development lessons are designed to assist the pupil in acquiring the elementary ideas on which grammatical distinctions are based. It is very important that these distinctions should be clearly conceived before any of the definitions or rules of the text are committed to memory.

Lesson I.—LANGUAGE.

What must we use to express our thoughts in speaking or writing?

Words.

What is this mode of expressing our thoughts called?

It is called **language.**

Do all people use the same language?

No; people living in different countries generally use different languages.

What language do we use in this country?

We use the English language.

How many ways of using language are there?

Two:—by speaking and by writing.

How many kinds of language, then, are there?

Two:—spoken language and written language.

In what countries is the English language spoken?

In England and in some other countries, as well as in the United States of America.

To know how to use a language correctly, we must study its grammar.

English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

II.—IDEAS, THOUGHTS, AND WORDS.

You can think of any object you have seen—a *tree*, for example—so as to see it in your mind, like an image or picture. This image or picture is called an **idea** of the tree. The word *tree* enables you to express the idea, either in speaking or writing. Words serve to bring to the mind the ideas of things previously observed. Thus I will think of various things, and recall to your minds the ideas of them by the following words:—

A horse.

A black horse.

A man on horseback.

A man riding a black horse.

A horse running away with a carriage.

Thus, you see, by means of words I can bring to your minds the ideas—pictures or images—of any thing or things you have seen; as I could also of things you have heard, smelt, tasted, or felt. Thus:—

Thunder.—The thunder peals.

A rose.—The rose has a sweet smell.

An orange.—The orange has a sweet and acid taste.

Velvet.—Velvet is soft and smooth to the touch.

Try to think of these things, and you will find that, although you can seem to hear, smell, taste, or feel them, you cannot do this so clearly as you can see in your mind a tree, a horse, or other object of sight. Hence we say, the ideas of things seen are clearer than those obtained through any of the other senses.

In thinking we combine ideas in various ways. Thus:—

The bird builds its nest in the tree.

Here we have several ideas combined in a single **thought**:—of the *bird*, of *building*, of a *nest*, of a *tree*; and these are related to each other in various ways:—the bird builds; the nest is built; the nest is in the tree. Thus you see there are four ideas of things, and several ideas of their relations one to another.

We cannot think without constantly using many ideas; and we cannot think clearly, or communicate our thoughts to other persons, without using **words** to represent those ideas. These words, joined together in the right way, make **language.**

What, then, shall we say **language** is?

Language is the expression of our thoughts in speaking or in writing.

III.—LETTERS, SYLLABLES, and WORDS.

The teacher begins this lesson by enunciating the sounds of several letters, as **a, e, f, g, s**; and then proceeds:—

What are these sounds?

The sounds of letters.

Can you tell me the names of these letters?

Can you show me their forms when written?

You see, then, that there is the **sound** of the letter, the **name** of the letter, and the **form** of the letter, and that letters represent sounds of the human voice.

When we join letters together, as, *m-a-n*, *b-o-y*, *s-c-h-o-o-l*, what do we form?

We form words.

Do we always form whole words by joining letters together in this way? Thus, s-i-l, sil; v-e-r, ver; p-a, pa; p-e-r, per;—are these *whole words* or *parts of words?*

We call these parts of words **syllables.**

Do we always write the letters with the same forms?

No; the letters have several forms. Thus:—

A,	B,	C,	D,	E,	F, etc.
a,	b,	c,	d,	e,	f, etc.

The larger letters are called CAPITALS; the others, small letters. These forms of letters are very old. They were used by the Romans more than two thousand years ago. Hence, they are called Roman letters.

You have often seen other forms. Thus:—

A,	*B*,	*C*,	*D*,	*E*,	*F*, etc.
a,	*b*,	*c*,	*d*,	*e*,	*f*, etc.

These are called *Italics*, because they are used by the people of Italy in writing their language (*Italian*).

There is still another form. Thus:—

John is a good boy.

This is the form used in writing; hence called *Script* (meaning *written*).

IV.—REVIEW.—DEFINITIONS.

A **letter** is a character used to represent a sound of the human voice.

The letters used in any language taken together are called its **alphabet.**

The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

These letters have each two forms,—**capitals** and **small letters.**

In the English language, the Roman letters are generally employed; but sometimes the *Italic*, for the sake of emphasis or distinction.

In writing, *script* forms are used.

A **syllable** is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word.

A **word** is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea.

A word of one syllable is called a **monosyllable;** a word of two syllables, a **dissyllable;** a word of three syllables, a **trisyllable;** and a word of four or more syllables, a **polysyllable.**

V.—LETTERS AND SYLLABLES CLASSIFIED.

The letters are divided into two general classes, **vowels** and **consonants.**

A **vowel** is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone; as, *a*, *e*, *o*.

A **consonant** is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, *b*, *c*, *d*.

The vowels are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. All the other letters are consonants.

W or *y* is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in *wine*, *twine*, *whine*, *ye*, *yet*, *youth:* in all other cases, these letters are vowels; as in *newly*, *dewy*, *eyebrow*.

In most syllables, a single letter represents the vowel sound; but very frequently *two* or *three* letters are joined in a syllable. These form what are called **diphthongs** and **triphthongs.**

A **diphthong** is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*.

A **proper diphthong** is a diphthong in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *voice*.

An **improper diphthong** is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *oa* in *loaf*.

A **triphthong** is three vowels joined in one syllable; as, *eau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view*.

A **proper triphthong** is a triphthong in which all the vowels are sounded; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

An **improper triphthong** is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the diphthongs in the following words, and say whether they are proper or improper:—*

Mean, chief, builder, pointed, despair, receive, ancient, goal, reign, nation, degree, mischief, captain, guardian, coward, fountain, mountainous, prairie, tea-spoon, touch-wood, joyous, journey, jealousy, issue.

2. *Point out the triphthongs in the following words, and say whether they are proper or improper:—*

Awe, ewe, anxious, eyelid, beauteous, purlieu, quoit, owe, outrageous, cautious, viewless.

VI.—WORDS, THEIR CLASSES AND DIVISIONS.

Words are either **simple** or **compound.**

A **simple word** is one that is not composed of other words; as, *watch*, *man.*

A **compound word** is one that is composed of two or more simple words; as, *watchman*, *nevertheless.*

Words are, also, either **primitive** or **derivative.**

A **primitive word** is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, *harm*, *great*, *connect.*

A **derivative word** is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language; as, *harmless*, *greatly*, *connected.*

In dividing words into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear. The following rules should generally be observed:—

I. Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diphthongs which they modify in utterance; as, *ap-os-tol-i-cal.*

II. Two vowels coming together, if they make not a diphthong, must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, *a-e-ri-al.*

III. Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, *harm-less*, *great-ly*, *connect-ed.*

IV. Prefixes, in general, form separate syllables; as, *mis-place*, *out-ride*, *up-lift:* but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus, *re-create* and *rec-reate* are words of different import.

V. Compounds, when divided, should be divided into the simple words which compose them; as, *no-where.*

VI. At the end of a line, a word may be divided, if necessary; but a syllable must never be broken.

Exercise.

Divide the following words into their proper syllables.

Vengeance, permission, whosoever, divisible, recollection, rational, premeditate, reflected, inflexibility, extraordinary, unnecessary, preparation, aëriform, aqueduct, iniquity, triennial, conscientiousness, ratio,

appreciate, impressible, archipelago, resurrection, abecedarian, simultaneously, prejudice, pronunciation, propitious, catalogue, polysyllable, miscellaneous, omniscience, recommendation.

VII.—SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

OBS.—This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But to be ignorant of the orthography of such words as are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The rules here given may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to the learner.

Rules for Spelling.

RULE I.—FINAL F, L, OR S.

Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*; except three in *f*—*clef*, *if*, *of*; three in *l*—*bul*, *sal*, *sol*; and eleven in *s*—*as*, *gas*, *has*, *was*, *yes*, *is*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *thus*, *pus*.

RULE II.—OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; except *abb*, *ebb*, *add*, *odd*, *egg*, *inn*, *err*, *burr*, *purr*, *yarr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *fuzz*, and some proper names.

RULE III.—DOUBLING.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, or by a vowel after *qu*, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, *rob*, *robber*; *permit*, *permitting*; *acquit*, *acquittal*, *acquitting*.

EXCEPTION.—*X* final, being equivalent to *ks*, is never doubled.

RULE IV.—NO DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, *toil, toiling; visit, visited; general, generalize.*

EXC.—But *l* and *s* final are often doubled (though, according to Webster, improperly) when the last syllable is not accented: as, *travel, travelled; bias, biassed.*

RULE V.—RETAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double before any additional termination not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives: *seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.*

EXC.—The irregular words, *fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past,* and the derivatives from the word *pontiff,* are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI.—FINAL E.

The final *e mute* of a primitive word is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, *rate, ratable; force, forcible; rave, raving; eye, eying.*

EXC.—Words ending in *ce* or *ge* retain the *e* before *able* or *ous,* to preserve the soft sound of *c* or *g*: as, *peace, peaceable; change, changeable; outrage, outrageous.*

RULE VII.—FINAL E.

The final *e* of a primitive word is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, *pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.*

EXC.—When the *e* is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted: as, *true, truly; awe, awful;* and sometimes retained: as, *rue, rueful; shoe, shoeless.*

RULE VIII.—FINAL Y.

The final *y* of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* before an additional termination: as, *merry, merrier, merriest, merrily, merriment; pity, pitied, pities, pitiest, pitiless, pitiful, pitiable.*

EXC.—Before *ing, y* is retained, to prevent the doubling of *i*: as, *pity, pitying.* Words ending in *ie,* dropping the *e* by RULE VI., change *i* into *y,* for the same reason: as, *die, dying.*

OBS.—When a vowel precedes, *y* should not be changed: as, *day, days; valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.*

Rule IX.—Compounds.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them: as, *hereof*, *wherein*, *horseman*, *recall*, *uphill*, *shellfish*.

Exc.—In permanent compounds, the words *full* and *all* drop one *l*: as, *handful*, *careful*, *always*, *withal*; in others, they retain both: as, *full-blown*, *all-wise*, *save-all*.

Exercises.

1. *State from what primitive word each of the following derivatives is formed, and according to which of the Rules for Spelling.*

Compelled, skillful, holiday, happiness, courageous, rebellion, traveler, believing, achievement, spoonful, galloping, beautiful, deluder, salable, changeable, narrator, juiciness, improvement, loveliness, beggar, spotted, preference, preferred, variable, conveyance, thralldom, agreeable, deriving, shoeing, business, icicle, impel, beginner, manumitting.

2. *Form as many derivatives as possible from each of the following primitives.*

Excel, visit, commit, worship, bury, beauty, travel, judge, sincere, refer, vary, agree, full, delay, busy, tie, differ, occur, expel, benefit, duty, plan, despoil, narrate, beg, peril, receive, instruct, assemble, pity, define, mimic, compose, form, value, charge, animate, combat, acquit, abridge, critic, allege, merchant, tyrant, fancy, dry, omit, achieve, whole, compel, tall, debt, write, cancel, rob, spell.

3. *Correct the errors in the following words according to the Rules for Spelling.*

Scof, repell, til, untill, rareity, chimnies, crosness, outstriped, pasport, blisful, slothfull, merryness, instiling, refered, preferrable, referible, duely, welspent, benefitted, improveing, defering, controll, controlable, dulness, forgeting, bigotted, untieing, moveable, pontifficate, forceible, aweful, annull, handfull, al-powerfull, fruitfullness, miscal, wherin, perillous, fulfil, appall, uphil.

4. *Analyze the following words, and state to which of the Rules for Spelling they are exceptions.*

Excellence, judgment, bounteous, gaiety, said, egg, yes, argument, wholly, abridgment, almighty, gaseous, unpaid, crystalline, cancellate, development, mutinous, denying, kidnapping, daily, charitable, plenteous, babyhood, truly, this, add, unparalleled, biassed, dryly, awful, welfare, wherefore, chilblain, welcome, Christmas.

VIII.—CAPITALS.

It is very important that capitals be properly employed. The following rules should be carefully observed.

Rules.

RULE I.—TITLES OF BOOKS.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the principal words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II.—FIRST WORDS.

The first word of every distinct sentence, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III.—NAMES OF THE DEITY.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, *God*, *Jehovah*, *the Almighty*, *the Supreme Being*.

RULE IV.—PROPER NAMES.

Titles of office or honor, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, *Chief Justice Hale*, *William*, *London*, *the Park*, *the Albion*, *the Spectator*, *the Thames*.

RULE V.—OBJECTS PERSONIFIED.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as,

"Come, gentle *Spring*, ethereal mildness, come."

RULE VI.—WORDS DERIVED.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places, should begin with capitals; as, *Newtonian*, *Grecian*, *Roman*.

RULE VII.—I AND O.

The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have *I* cried unto thee, *O* Lord."

Rule VIII.—Poetry.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

"Those Christians best deserve the name
Who studiously make peace their aim."

Rule IX.—Examples.

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself.'"—"Virgil says, 'Labor conquers all things."

Rule X.—Chief Words.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subject of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

Exercise.

Copy the following sentences, and insert or omit capital letters according to the Rules for Capitals.

Goldsmith's "deserted village" is a beautiful poem. The lord is a great god above all Gods. The city of london is situated on the river Thames. The hudson river was discovered by Henry hudson. the roman empire was divided into two portions at the death of theodosius the great, the empire of the West being governed by Honorius and that of the east, by arcadius. O liberty! o sound once delightful to every roman ear! epimanondas, the theban General, was remarkable for his love of Truth, he never told a lie even in Jest. o grave! where is thy victory? And god spake unto moses, and said unto him, i am the lord. Pope says, "order is heaven's first law." The "lady of the lake" was written by sir walter scott, who was also the Author of the waverley novels.

get thee back, sorrow, get thee back!
why should i weep while i am young?
i have not piped—i have not danced—
my morning Songs i have not sung.

We have now concluded that part of English grammar which treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling. This part of grammar is called **Orthography.**

What is orthography?

Questions for Review.

What is language? What language is spoken in this country? What is English grammar?

What is an idea? What is a thought? What ideas are the clearest? Give examples to illustrate.

What is a word? What is a syllable? What is a letter? What different forms have letters? What is meant by the Alphabet of a language? What is a word of one syllable called? Of two syllables? Of three syllables? Of four or more syllables?

How are letters classified? What is a vowel? What is a consonant? What letters are vowels? Are *w* and *y* vowels or consonants? Give examples.

What is a diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is the difference between a proper and an improper diphthong? Between a proper and an improper triphthong? Give examples of each.

What is a simple word? What is a compound word? Give examples of each. What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word? Give examples of each.

What are the rules for dividing words into their proper syllables? What is spelling? What words should begin with a capital? What letters should always be capitals? How should capitals be used in poetry? What words have capitals throughout? Of what does orthography treat?

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

I. PARTS OF SPEECH.

LESSON I.—NAMES OF THINGS.

The teacher commences by holding up any object, as a pen, a book, a pencil, etc., so that it may be seen by the pupils. He then proceeds, asking, successively:—

What is the name of this? Of this? Of this?

Pen. Book. Pencil. Slate.

These words are written on the blackboard, by the teacher or one of the pupils, and the teacher asks:—

What are these words?

The names of things.

Why are names given to things?

Because we cannot talk about them without knowing their names. We cannot think clearly of them, unless we give names to them. It is very necessary, then, that everything should have a name; and it is the first step in learning a language to acquire a correct knowledge of the names of things.

Now you may write the following:—

1. Five names of parts of your body.
2. Five names of parts of the chair.
3. Five names of things which you have seen.
4. Five names of flowers.
5. Five names of fruit.
6. Five names of places.
7. Five names of persons.

The teacher should require the pupils in writing these names to commence each with a capital, and to place a period after each word. Everything should be done with care and accuracy.

II.—SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

The teacher holds up before his pupils any object, as a book. He then asks :—

What is the name of this?

What can you say about it?

The book is new. The book is green. The book has covers. The book has leaves. We can read the book.

In the same manner let the pupil say or write something about other things the names of which have been mentioned in Lesson I. In writing these statements care should be taken that they are correct as to capitals, spelling, and punctuation.

The teacher then writes on the blackboard some simple sentence; as, *Birds fly.*

Read what I have written on the blackboard.

Now, when you say, *Birds fly*, of what do you speak?

Birds.

What do you say of *birds?*

They *fly.*

The teacher then writes on the blackboard another sentence; as, *Bees make honey.*

What is spoken of here?

What is said of *bees?*

Other sentences are then written, as *William plays. John studies. Mary sews. Bears growl. Bees sting. Boys run.*

Tell me what is spoken of in each of these statements, and I will write it on the blackboard.

The teacher then draws a vertical line and writes the names at the left of this line.

Now tell me what is said of each, and I will write it by the side of the other on the blackboard.

William	plays.
John	studies.
Mary	sews.
Bears	growl.
Bees	sting.
Boys	run.

This exercise should be continued sufficiently long to impress clearly on the minds of the pupils the distinction designed to be taught. They should also be required to give such expressions, and separate them as above. It will be observed that the term *sentence* has not yet been employed.

Whatever is spoken of is called the **subject.**

Whatever is said of the subject is called the **predicate.**

Exercises.

1. *Write predicates for the following subjects :—*

Trees. Flowers. Apples. Oranges. Henry. Sarah.

2. *Write subjects for the following predicates :—*

——— is writing. ——— sing. ——— bloom. ——— burns. ——— fade. ——— sail. ——— runs.

III.—SENTENCES.

A subject and predicate joined together serve to express a complete thought, or to make *complete sense.*

Any single word serves to express an *idea ;* but generally it requires at least two words to make complete sense, because there must be a subject and predicate. The teacher illustrates thus :

Writes on the blackboard, *The book.*

Do these words make complete sense ?

Why not ?

There is no predicate.

Is the sense complete in this [*runs*] ?

Why not ?

There is no subject.

Writes on the blackboard, *On the table.*

Do these words make complete sense ?

No ; because there is neither subject nor predicate.

Whenever words make complete sense, they form what is called a **sentence.**

What, then, is a sentence ?

A sentence is an assemblage of words which make complete sense.

Find the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences:—

Boys run.
Do boys run?
Boys, run.

We find that the subject and the predicate are the same in each. How, then, do they differ?

The first *affirms;* the second *asks a question* (interrogates); the third *commands.*

These answers will readily be obtained from the pupils by a little skill on the part of the teacher; and nothing should be told the pupils which they may be made to discover themselves.

You thus see that you can join the same subject and predicate together so as to make different kinds of sentences, introducing a small word occasionally, such as *do* or *does*, which does not essentially alter the meaning.

When a sentence affirms, it is called *declarative;* when it asks a question, *interrogative;* when it commands, *imperative.*

When a sentence contains an exclamation, it is called an *exclamatory sentence;* as, "O! the horse is running away!"

Exercises.

1. *Change the following declarative sentences into interrogative.*

The sun shines. The stars twinkle. The boy is idle. The ship has sailed. William is studious. Mary sews. The birds sing. The flower is blooming. The dew is falling. Birds sing.

2. *Form declarative or interrogative sentences from the following.*

How beautiful is night! What a noble action that was! William, study your lesson. Sarah, do not loiter. Mary, how you talk! Alas! my bird is dead! O! how sad I feel! John, leave the room. How fast the horse runs! Hurrah! we have gained the day!

IV.—NOUN AND PRONOUN.

The name of any person, place, or thing, when used in a sentence, is called a **noun.**

Must the subject of a sentence be a noun?

This is a *thought-question.* Let the pupils, therefore, have time to consider it; and then vary the exercise to suit the answers elicited.

The subject of a sentence must be a noun, or some other word used instead of a noun.

Give an example of each.

John studies. *He* studies.

What noun is used in the first of these sentences?

What word is used instead of it in the second?

Now write five sentences, each having the noun *William* for its subject.

1. William studies.
2. William studies his lessons.
3. William is making improvement.
4. William should be rewarded.
5. William is praised by his teacher.

Now write the same sentences, using the noun *William* only in the first one.

What word have you used instead of the noun in this case?

What other word is used instead of the noun in the second and fifth of these sentences?

Write five other sentences containing words used instead of nouns.

A word used instead of a noun is called a **pronoun.** [*Pro* means *for*, or *instead of.*]

Mary gave Mary's book to Mary's brother Charles.

Are there any pronouns in this sentence?

Can you use pronouns for any of the nouns?

Write the sentence with as many pronouns as can be used, so as to avoid repeating the noun Mary.

Mary gave her book to her brother Charles.

Of what use is the pronoun?

It prevents the need of repeating the same noun too often.

Write five sentences, using one of the following nouns in each as a subject, and as many pronouns as possible.

Samuel. Julia. Trees. The ship. The moon. The stars.

V.—VERB.

Birds fly. Charles is taught. He is.

What is the predicate in each of these sentences?

What does the predicate *fly* show, or denote?

It shows what the birds *do*.

Does the predicate *is taught* show what Charles *does*, or what *is done* to him?

Does the predicate *is* denote either of these?

Which of these predicates denotes action?

Which denotes *being*, without action?

Which denotes that the subject acts?

Which denotes that the subject is acted upon?

The word in the sentence that shows that the subject *acts*, *is acted upon*, or merely that it *is*, or exists, is called a **verb.**

What, then, may we say a verb is?

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

Which is the verb in each of the following sentences?

Subjects.	*Predicates.*
The earth	is a round body.
John	studies his lessons.
The horse	runs very swiftly.
The boy	was punished by his teacher.
Cain	slew Abel.
Abel	was slain by Cain.

Is the verb a part of the subject or of the predicate?

Of what use are the other words in the predicate?

They serve to complete the predicate. Thus, *The boy studies* is a sentence, because it contains a subject and a predicate; but the predicate is not complete, because it does not show what he studies.

Exercises.

1. *Write three sentences, each containing a verb that denotes* BEING.
2. *Write five sentences, each containing a verb that denotes* ACTION.
3. *Write five sentences, in each of which the subject is represented as being* ACTED UPON.

Divide each sentence into its subject and predicate by a line, as above.

VI.—ARTICLE AND ADJECTIVE.

The bird sings. A bird can fly.

What word is the subject of each of these sentences?

When we say *the bird*, do we mean any bird or some particular bird?

We mean some particular bird.

What do we mean when we say *a bird?*

We mean *any bird*,—no particular bird.

What, then, is the use of these words, *a* and *the?*

Do they change the meaning, or signification, of the nouns before which they are placed?

They do not essentially change it, but they *limit* it, because such expressions as *the bird, the flower*, do not have so wide a meaning as *a bird, a flower*.

Is it right to say *a apple, a eye, a oak?*

What should we say instead of these?

An apple. An eye. An oak.

We thus change *a* into *an* when the following word begins with a vowel, or the sound of a vowel; as, An heir, an hour.

These three little words, *a, an, the*, are called **articles.**

How may we define an article?

An article is the word *the, an* or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification.

In the sentence *The good boy learns*, what word besides the article is added to the noun *boy?*

For what purpose is the word *good* added?

To show what kind of a boy he is; that is, to show his quality.

Words added to nouns or pronouns for this purpose are called **adjectives.**

What is an adjective?

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

Exercises.

1. *Write three sentences, each containing one or more articles.*

2. *Write three sentences, each containing a noun and an adjective.*

3. *Write three sentences, each containing an article, a noun, and an adjective.*

4. *Find the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences, and point out the verb, the noun, and the article.*

Henry has a nice new book.
The dog has caught the sly fox.
The lightning struck the old barn.
The sharp frost killed the young buds.
The full moon sheds a pale light.
The bright sun scorched the green grass.
A diligent scholar makes rapid improvement.
A careless, idle boy receives many sharp reproofs.

VII.—ADJUNCTS.

A good boy always obeys his parents.

What is the subject of this sentence? The predicate?

What noun forms a part of the subject? What article? What adjective?

What verb forms a part of the predicate? What other words belong to the predicate?

What words are added to the noun *boy?*

What words are added to the verb *obeys?*

Words that are added to other words in a sentence are called **adjuncts.**

What must every sentence consist of?

The subject and predicate, and adjuncts.

The subject and predicate are the *principal parts* of a sentence.

The *principal word* of the subject is the noun or pronoun to which the adjuncts relate.

The *principal word* of the predicate is the verb, on which all the adjuncts, directly or indirectly, depend.

Exercise.

Point out the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences, and tell what are the adjuncts in each.

The sun shines brightly. Good scholars study diligently. The beautiful flowers soon fade. How soon the beautiful flowers fade! He acted very foolishly. Then they went away. When did they go away? The old man walks along very slowly. His new book is now lost. The frightened horse ran away very swiftly.

VIII.—PARTICIPLE.

William going home lost his book.

What is the subject of this sentence?
What is added to it?
Going home.

Which of these words is an adjunct of the other?
Home is an adjunct of *going.*

What does it show?
Where William was going.

What does the word *going* express?
It expresses *action.*

What, then, is it like?
It is like a verb.

To what noun is it added?
It is added to the noun *William.*

Then what else is it like besides a verb?
It is like an adjective.

It is on this account said to *participate,* or partake of, the properties of a verb and an adjective, and is therefore called a **participle.**

Are participles always like adjectives?

No; some participles participate the properties of a verb and a noun; as the word *reading* is used in the sentence, *William is fond of reading stories.*

What is a participle?

A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, to the verb.

IX.—ADVERB.

The horse runs swiftly.

What verb is used in the predicate of this sentence?

What adjunct has it?

What does the word *swiftly* show?

It shows in what *manner* the horse runs.

In the sentence, *The horse runs very swiftly*, what word is added to *swiftly?*

What does this word show?

It shows how swiftly the horse runs; that is, the *degree* of his swiftness.

What word expresses degree in the following sentence:—

John is an exceedingly bright scholar.

To what word is it added?

In the sentence, *He went there to-day*, what adjuncts has the verb *went?*

What does *there* express?

What does *to-day* express?

Such words added to verbs are called **adverbs.**

What, then, is an adverb?

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the adverb in each of the sentences in the exercise to Lesson VII., and state to what word it is added, and what it expresses.*

2. *Write three sentences, each containing an adverb of time;—three, each containing an adverb of place;—three, each containing an adverb of degree;—and three, each containing an adverb of manner.*

X.—CONJUNCTION.

John is a good scholar. William is a good scholar. Charles is a good scholar.

How many sentences are there here?
In what respect are they alike?
The predicate is the same in each.

Can they be joined together so as to have only one predicate?
John, William, and Charles are good scholars.

What have you joined,—the subjects or the predicates?
What word is used to join them?
Words used to join other words together in this way are called **conjunctions.**

Can the following sentences be joined together?
Mary is diligent. Her sister is idle.
Yes; they can be joined in the following manner:—
Mary is diligent, but her sister is idle.

What word is used to connect these sentences?
What, then, may conjunctions connect?
They may connect words or sentences.

What, then, may we say a conjunction is?
A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the conjunctions in each of the following sentences, and state what they connect.*

The pupils read, write, and cipher. The children skip, jump, and play. Boys and girls go to school and learn their lessons. William is attentive, but his brother is heedless. He could not find his slate or his pencil. He is careless, for he has lost his book. John must be punished, because he is idle. If children are good, they should be rewarded.

2. *Write five sentences, each containing a conjunction used in the subject.*

3. *Write five sentences, each containing a conjunction used in the predicate.*

4. *Write three sentences, each composed of two sentences connected by a conjunction.*

XI.—PREPOSITION.

The bird flew over the tree.
The boy climbed up the tree.
The squirrel ran down the tree.

What verbs are used in these sentences?
To what is the action expressed by each of them related?
It is related to the tree.

Is the relation the same in each?
No; it is *over* the tree in the first, *up* the tree in the second, and *down* the tree in the third.

What words are used to express this relation?
The words *over*, *up*, and *down*.

Words that express relation in this manner are called **prepositions.**

How may we define a preposition?
A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the prepositions in each of the following sentences, and state what relation they express.*

The paper lies upon the table.
The book is before him.
The horse ran from the stable.
He put the money into his pocket.
The boat sailed across the lake.
The roof of the house leaks.
Here is a pin without a head.
The boy is free from blame.

2. *Mention all the prepositions you can think of.*

3. *Write five sentences containing any of those prepositions.*

XII.—INTERJECTION.—PARTS OF SPEECH.

Oh! how beautiful is the sky!

What kind of a sentence is this? [See **Lesson III.**]
What word in it is used to express emotion?
What point is placed after it?

Words used to indicate emotion in this way are called **Interjections.**

How may we define an interjection?

An interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the interjections in the following sentences.*
Alas! my bird is dead!
Hush! you will disturb his sleep.
O for a calm and thankful mind!
Pshaw! how ridiculous that is!

2. *Mention any other interjections you can think of.*

3. *Write five sentences, each containing an interjection.*

Do all the words of a sentence perform the same office?

No; they perform different offices.

What office do some perform?

Some are *names* of things; some express *action;* some, *quality;* others, *relation;* and some are used to *connect*, etc.

On this account words have been arranged in classes, called **Parts of Speech.**

What are the names of the Parts of Speech?

The Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

That part of grammar which treats of the different parts of speech, and also into what classes they are divided, and how they are modified, is called **Etymology.**

What is etymology?

XIII.—REVIEW.—DEFINITIONS.

A **sentence** is an assemblage of words which make complete sense; as, *Beauty fades.—Reward sweetens labor.*

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

The **parts of speech,** or sorts of words, in English, are ten; namely, the Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

An **article** is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification; as, *the* air, *the* stars; *an* island, *a* ship.

A **noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned; as, *George*, *York*, *man*, *apple*, *truth.*

An **adjective** is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, A *wise* man; a *new* book.—You *two* are *diligent.*

A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun: as, The boy loves *his* book; *he* has long lessons, and *he* learns *them* well.

A **verb** is a word that signifies *to be*, *to act*, or *to be acted upon:* as, I *am*, I *rule*, I *am ruled;* I *love*, thou *lovest*, he *loves.*

A **participle** is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, to the verb. Thus, from the verb *rule* are formed three participles, two simple and one compound: as, 1, *ruling;* 2, *ruled;* 3, *having ruled.*

An **adverb** is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner; as, They are *now here*, studying *very diligently.*

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected; as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good."

A **preposition** is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun; as, The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk.

An **interjection** is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; as, *Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw!*

Questions for Review.

What is a sentence? What are the principal parts of a sentence? What is the subject? What is the predicate? What is a declarative sentence? An interrogative sentence? An exclamatory sentence? An imperative sentence? What are adjuncts? What are parts of speech? What are the names of the parts of speech? How many are there? Give the definition of each. What is etymology?

XIV.—PARSING.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

Exercises in Parsing.

EXERCISE I.—*Point out in the following sentences the verb, the noun, and the article, and parse each as in the example.*

EXAMPLE 1.—The man walks.

1. *Walks* is the verb, because it signifies action.
2. *Man* is the noun, because it is the name of a person.
3. *The* is the article, because it limits the signification of the noun, *man*.

The sun shines. William reads. The fire burns. The ship sailed. John studies grammar. The boy told an untruth. The horse is a quadruped. *A* is an article. The flowers bloom. Ducks swim. Does the sun shine? Birds build nests. Columbus discovered America. Hawks kill chickens. Cain slew Abel. The sun ripens the fruit.

EXERCISE II.—*Point out the verb, the noun, the article, the adjective, and the pronoun, and parse each as in the first and second examples.*

EXAMPLE 2.—An idle scholar disgraces his teacher.

4. *Idle* is the adjective, because it expresses the quality of *scholar*.
5. *His* is the pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun *scholar*.

A good boy obeys his parents. Sarah learns her lessons. History is a useful study. A disobedient boy disgraces his parents. The earth is a round body. Boys are heedless. They disregard their teachers. Wisdom is the principal thing. A noble mind scorns a mean action. Washington was a true patriot. A good book is an interesting companion. William found the money which his careless brother lost. A friend should bear a friend's infirmities. A faithful servant studies his master's interest. A cheerful temper is a great blessing.

EXERCISE III.—*Distinguish the parts of speech in the following sentences, and parse each as in the first, second, and third examples.*

EXAMPLE 3.—The good scholar attends diligently and carefully to his lessons.

6. *Diligently* and *carefully* are adverbs, because they are added to the verb *attend*, and express manner.
7. *And* is a conjunction, because it connects the adverbs *diligently* and *carefully*.
8. *To* is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb *attend* to the noun *lessons*.

John and Peter are good scholars. James is a dishonest and idle lad. The rose is a beautiful and fragrant flower. Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them. William studies diligently, but Charles is idle. A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange is very delicious. The eagle has a strong and piercing eye. Candor, sincerity, and truth are amiable qualities. The horse runs swiftly. Cæsar was a very famous general. He conquered many nations, and invaded the island of Britain. Hark! the trumpet sounds. Alas! how unfortunate he is! The industrious and attentive scholar learns with great ease and rapidity. Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood. Sloth enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers. The shortest life is long, if it leads to a better.

EXERCISE IV.—*State what part of speech is required in each of the following sentences; fill the blanks, and parse each word.*

The man walks ———. John writes ———. Quicksilver is bright ——— shining. ——— boy is amiable ——— talented; ——— he does not study. ——— is beautiful ——— fragrant. Set the book ——— the ———. The bird flew ——— a tree. The ship sailed ——— the

harbor. The fear ——— punishment ——— crime. My father has gone ——— Boston, ——— will ——— return. The travelers sat ——— a ——— fire. The ——— scholars have studied ——— lessons, and ——— know ——— well. The hare is a ——— timid animal. He runs away very ——— when he ——— the least noise.

XV.—ANALYSIS.

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

Every sentence must contain two principal parts: the **subject** and the **predicate.**

Any combination of the subject and predicate is called a **proposition.**

A **simple sentence** is one that contains only one proposition; as, "Fire burns."—"The truth will prevail."

A **phrase** is a combination of two or more words expressing some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition; as, "Of a good disposition."—"By the means appointed."

The subject of a sentence generally consists of a noun or a pronoun, with or without adjuncts; the predicate of a sentence consists of a verb, with or without adjuncts.

An adjective, participle, noun, or pronoun used in the predicate of a sentence, but relating to the subject, is called an **attribute;** as, "Gold is *yellow*."—"Cain was a *murderer*."—"The sun is *shining*."—"It is *he*."

In analyzing a simple sentence, point out:—

1. The subject.
2. The predicate.
3. The subject noun and its adjuncts.
4. The predicate verb and its adverbial adjuncts.
5. The object and its adjuncts.
6. The attribute and its adjuncts.

Example 1.—Contentment brings happiness.

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *contentment;* the predicate is *brings happiness*, of which *brings* is the verb, and *happiness* the object.

In the same manner analyze the following sentences:—

Vice brings misery. Diligence is rewarded. Plants produce flowers. Haste makes waste. Perseverance overcomes obstacles. The tree bears fruit. Vanity excites disgust. The merchant sells goods. The sailors suffered shipwreck. Does William study grammar? Can vice bring happiness? Children should obey their parents. Does Charles obey his parents? The bird has built a nest.

Example 2.—All the objects of nature well deserve our diligent study.

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *all the objects of nature;* the predicate is *well deserve our diligent study.* The subject noun is *objects*, and its adjuncts are *all*, *the*, and the phrase *of nature;* the predicate verb is *deserve*, and its adjuncts are the adverb *well* and the object *study;* the adjuncts of the object are *our* and *diligent.*

In the same manner analyze the following:—

The good scholar attentively studies his lessons. Many severe afflictions overtook that unfortunate man. He suddenly lost all his property. Every person highly praised William's noble conduct. Cæsar fought many great battles. William has carelessly torn John's beautiful new book. The Athenians carefully observed Solon's wise laws. The queen has wisely proclaimed a general peace. John yesterday found Sarah's new book. This benevolent young lady kindly teaches many poor children. Both these bad boys deserve severe punishment. The traveler related many amusing incidents. This merchant has just returned from Europe. In winter, the snow covers the ground. The love of truth should be carefully cultivated. Grammar teaches the right use of language.

Example 3.—Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime.

A simple declarative sentence. Subject, *filial ingratitude;* predicate, *is a shameful crime.* Subject noun, *ingratitude;* adjunct, *filial.* Predicate verb, *is;* adjunct, the attribute *crime;* adjuncts of the attribute, *a* and *shameful.*

In the same manner analyze the following:—

The sky is blue. The fields are green. My book is new. His book is very old. Honesty is the best policy. Napoleon was a great general. Washington was a true patriot. New York is a great commercial city. Thomas Jefferson was the third president. Gold and silver are precious metals. Order is Heaven's first law. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. The flowers of spring are very beautiful.

XVI.—CONSTRUCTION AND COMPOSITION.

Construction is the combination of words into sentences.

Composition is the combination of sentences to express thought.

In a composition the sentences are related to each other by the thoughts which they express.

Do the sentences in the preceding exercise form a composition?

No; because they are disconnected. They express thoughts that have no relation to each other.

Exercises.

Construct the following:

A sentence with a noun, a verb, and adjuncts of each.

A sentence with a subject noun, a predicate verb, and an object with its adjuncts.

A sentence with a subject pronoun, a predicate verb, and an attribute noun with its adjuncts.

A sentence with an adjective attribute.

A sentence with an object and other adjuncts in the subject and predicate.

Write three sentences describing a **tree.**

Write four sentences describing a **fish.**

Write five sentences about a **clock.**

Write several sentences forming a short composition on a **dog.**

Cautions.—1. Do not use the same word too often, nor express the same thought more than once.

2. Avoid all slang expressions.

3. Do not have too many short sentences. Join some of them together, so as to make the language more pleasing to the ear.

4. Be careful to *spell* all the words correctly, to use *capitals* according to the rules, and to end each sentence with a *period.* Propositions and phrases are generally separated by a *comma.*

Criticise the following:—

The Cat.

The cat has four legs. The cat catches mice. It is a quadruped. The cat can catch mice and rats, it can catch birds

too. The cat has soft fur. She purs when she is pleased. I have an awful nice cat. His name is tabby. He is very fond of me. Once i got scratched by a Cat. The cat is a useful animal in a House.

Faults.—The ideas are not connected enough. The words *cat* and *catch* are repeated too often. The sentences are all short, making the style unpleasant. There are mistakes in capitals and punctuation. There are repetitions of the same idea in the first four sentences.

We will try to improve it.

The Cat.

The cat is a small quadruped, quite useful in a house, because it can catch rats and mice. It can catch birds, too. It has soft fur, and purs when it is pleased. I have a nice cat, that is very fond of me. His name is Tabby. Once I was scratched by a cat.

Write similar compositions on:—

The Horse. The Cow. The Sheep. The Canary Bird. The Eagle. The Lion. The Elephant. The Camel. The Ostrich.

Questions for Review.

Define analysis. What are the principal parts of a sentence? What is a proposition? A simple sentence? A phrase? Of what does the subject of a sentence consist? The predicate? What is an attribute? How is a sentence analyzed? What is meant by the construction of sentences? What is composition? What cautions are given?

II. CLASSES AND MODIFICATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

I.—ARTICLES.

The articles are distinguished as the **definite** and the **indefinite article.**

The **definite article** is *the*, which denotes some particular thing or things; as, *The* boy, *the* oranges.

The **indefinite article** is *an* or *a*, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, *A* boy, *an* orange.

An and *a* are one and the same article. *An* is used whenever the following word begins with a vowel sound; as, *An* art, *an* end, *an* heir, *an* inch, *an* ounce, *an* hour, *an* urn. *A* is used whenever the following word begins with a consonant sound; as, *A* man, *a* house, *a* wonder, *a* one, *a* yew, *a* use, *a* ewer. Thus the sounds of *w* and *y*, even when expressed by other letters, require *a* and not *an* before them.

Exercise.

Prefix the indefinite article **an** *or* **a** *to each of the following:*

Apple. Horse. Eagle. Hour. Youth. Watch. Aunt. Onion. Union. Yoke. Heir. Hero. Elm. Honest man. Hour glass. Heirloom. Useful thing.

II.—NOUNS.—CLASSES.

Nouns are divided into two general classes: **proper** and **common.**

A **proper noun** is the name of some particular individual, or people, or group; as *Adam*, *Boston*, the *Hudson*, the *Romans*, the *Azores*, the *Alps*.

A **common noun** is the name of a sort, kind, or class of beings or things; as, *Beast*, *bird*, *fish*, *insect*, *creatures*, *persons*, *children*.

Among common nouns are included the particular classes, **collective, abstract,** and **verbal** or **participial nouns.**

1. A **collective noun,** or **noun of multitude,** is the name of many individuals together; as, *council, meeting, committee, flock.*

2. An **abstract noun** is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, *Goodness, hardness, pride, frailty.*

3. A **verbal** or **participial noun** is the name of some action or state of being; and is formed from a verb, like a participle, but employed as a noun; as, "The *triumphing* of the wicked is short."

Exercise.

Classify the nouns in the following sentences, stating to what general or particular class each of them belongs.

John's father went to Philadelphia last week. The convention was held in Albany, the capital of the State of New York. Cain showed the hardness of his heart in the killing of his brother Abel. The Hudson River was discovered by Henry Hudson. The Greeks gained many victories over the Persians. The Romans conquered many nations. London, the capital of England, is situated on the Thames River.

III.—MODIFICATIONS.—PERSONS AND NUMBERS.

The boy runs. The boys run.

What is the subject noun in each of these sentences?
How do they differ?
The first means only one; the second, more than one.

What change is made in the word *boy* to indicate this?
The letter *s* is added to it.

Such changes are called **modifications.**

Modifications sometimes refer to the different ways of using nouns, when no change is made in the word itself.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, **Persons, Numbers, Genders,** and **Cases.**

Persons.

Persons are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

There are three persons; the **first,** the **second,** and the **third.**

The **first person** is that which denotes the speaker or writer; as, "*I Paul* have written it."

The **second person** is that which denotes the hearer, or the person addressed; as, "*Robert*, who did this?"

The **third person** is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, "*James* loves his *book*."

OBS.—The speaker seldom refers to himself by name as the speaker; consequently, nouns are rarely used in the first person.

Numbers.

Numbers are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

There are two numbers; the **singular** and the **plural.**

The **singular number** is that which denotes but one; as "The *boy* learns."

The **plural number** is that which denotes more than one; as, "The *boys* learn."

The plural number of nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular: as, *book*, *books*; *box*, *boxes*.

How to form the Plural from the Singular.

1. When a singular *noun* ends in a sound which will unite with that of *s*, the plural is generally formed by adding *s* only, and the number of syllables is not increased: as, *pen*, *pens*; *grape*, *grapes*.

2. But when the sound of *s* cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds *s* to final *e*, and *es* to other terminations, and forms a separate syllable: as, *page*, *pages*; *fox*, *foxes*.

3. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, add *es*, but do not increase their syllables: as, *motto*, *mottoes*; *hero*, *heroes*. Other nouns in *o* add *s* only; as, *folio*, *folios*.

4. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*, without increase of syllables: as, *fly*, *flies*; *duty*, *duties*. Other nouns in *y* add *s* only: as, *day*, *days*; *valley*, *valleys*.

5. The following nouns in *f*, change *f* into *v*, and add *es*, for the plural; *sheaf*, *leaf*, *loaf*, *beef*, *thief*, *calf*, *half*, *elf*, *shelf*, *self*, *wolf*, *wharf*; as, *sheaves*, *leaves*, *etc.* *Life*, *lives*; *knife*, *knives*; *wife*, *wives*; are similar.

6. The greater number of nouns in *f* and *fe* are regular; as, *fifes*, *strifes*, *chiefs*, *griefs*, *gulfs*, *etc.*

7. Many foreign nouns retain their original plural: as, *arcanum*, *arcana*; *radius*, *radii*; *vortex*, *vortices*; *axis*, *axes*; *phenomenon*, *phenomena*; *seraph*, *seraphim*.

8. The following are very irregular: *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *child*, *children*; *brother*, *brethren* [or *brothers*]; *foot*, *feet*; *ox*, *oxen*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *goose*, *geese*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *die*, *dice*; *penny*, *pence*. *Dies*, stamps, and *pennies*, coins, are regular.

9. Some are alike in both numbers; as, *sheep*, *deer*, *swine*, *hose*, *means*, *odds*, *news*, *species*, *series*, *apparatus*.

10. Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case; as, *father-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*, *father-in-law's*.

11. Compounds ending in *ful*, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns; as, *handfuls*, *spoonfuls*, *mouthfuls*, *fellow-servants*, *man-servants*.

12. Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, admit the plural form; as, *meeting*, *meetings*. But when taken distributively, they have a plural signification, without the form; as, "The *jury* were divided."

Obs.—Some nouns have no plural; as, *gold*, *pride*, *meekness*. Others have no singular; as, *bellows*, *ides*, *tidings*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *vespers*.

Exercise.

Write the following nouns in the plural number:—

Child, box, life, tree, mouse, foot, tooth, knife, ox, brother, radius, woman, goose, axis, handful, hero, loaf, vortex, basis, cargo, lady, sheep, success, meeting, species, die, means, apparatus, phenomenon, brother-in-law.

IV.—MODIFICATIONS.—GENDERS AND CASES.

Genders.

Genders are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

There are three genders: the **masculine,** the **feminine,** and the **neuter.**

The **masculine gender** is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind; as, *man, father, king.*

The **feminine gender** is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind; as, *woman, mother, queen.*

The **neuter gender** is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, *pen, ink, paper.*

Some nouns may be applied to either sex; as, *cousin, friend, neighbor, parent, person, servant.* Such nouns are sometimes said to be of the *common gender.* Sometimes the sex can be determined by the context.

The sexes are denoted in three ways:—

1. By the use of different names: as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen.*

2. By the use of different terminations: as, *abbot, abbess; hero, heroine; administrator, administratrix.*

3. By prefixing an attribute of distinction: as, *cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; male relations, female relations.*

OBS.—The names of things without life, used literally, are always of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects are often represented figuratively as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine; as, the *sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war.* Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine; as, the *moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace.*

Cases.

Cases are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words.

There are three cases: the **nominative,** the **possessive,** and the **objective.**

The **nominative case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb: as, The *boy* runs; *I* run.

The **possessive case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the relation of property: as, The *boy's* hat; *my* hat.

The **objective case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition: as, I know the *boy;* he knows *me.*

A word is *formed* of the letters which compose it. Any change in the letters, therefore, changes its form. Thus the form of the word *boy* is changed to *boys,* and *fox* to *foxes,* in order to denote the plural number. Nouns of the masculine gender sometimes change their form to denote the feminine: as, *abbot, abbess; hero, heroine.* Nouns, in English, undergo no change in form to denote case, except the possessive.

The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative *s, preceded by an apostrophe;* and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in *s,* by adding *an apostrophe only;* as, *boy, boy's, boys'.*

Declension of Nouns.

The **declension** of a noun or a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

Nouns are declined as in the following examples:—

EXAMPLE I.—FRIEND.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	friend,	*Nom.*	friends,
Poss.	friend's,	*Poss.*	friends',
Obj.	friend;	*Obj.*	friends.

EXAMPLE II.—MAN.

Nom.	man,	*Nom.*	men,
Poss.	man's,	*Poss.*	men's,
Obj.	man;	*Obj.*	men.

EXAMPLE III.—FOX.

Nom.	fox,	*Nom.*	foxes,
Poss.	fox's,	*Poss.*	foxes',
Obj.	fox ;	*Obj.*	foxes.

EXAMPLE IV.—FLY.

Nom.	fly,	*Nom.*	flies,
Poss.	fly's,	*Poss.*	flies',
Obj.	fly ;	*Obj.*	flies.

Exercise.

In the same manner write the declension of :—

Goose, sheep, child, mouse, woman, wife, ox, horse, James, boy, lady, bird, prince, princess, teacher, scholar, parent, farmer.

Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

Analyze the following sentences, according to the examples on page 36 ; *and parse the words as in the following example.*

EXAMPLE.—A bad boy took the bird's nest.

A is the indefinite article, and limits the signification of the noun *boy*.

Bad is an adjective, and is added to the noun *boy*.

Boy is a common noun ; of the third person, because it denotes a person spoken of ; of the singular number, because it denotes only one ; of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male ; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *took*.

Took is a verb, signifying action.

The is the definite article, limiting the signification of the noun *bird's*.

Bird's is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, feminine gender (because here it denotes a female bird), and in the possessive case, because it denotes the possession of the nest.

Nest is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender (because it is neither male nor female), and in the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *took*.

The cat has caught a mouse. The dog caught a fox. The cow gives rich milk. The tree produces much fruit. The fire destroyed many fine buildings. The eagle has a piercing eye. William lost Mary's new book. How did John break the boy's slate? Foxes' tails are generally very long. The bird's plumage is quite beautiful. Birds' feathers are very light. The men's work was toilsome. Cæsar made many conquests. Rome had many great generals. Washington's character was truly great. A soldier's life is always perilous.

Exercises in Construction.

1. *Write three sentences, each containing a noun in the nominative case;—three, each containing a noun in the objective case;—three, each containing a noun in the possessive case.*

2. *Write a sentence containing one noun in the nominative case, one in the objective case, and one in the possessive case.*

3. *Write sentences, each containing one or more of the following words:—*

Man's, farmer's, house, barn, field, ploughing, planting, sowing seed, lakes, rivers, streams, fish, net, Charles's, boat, ship, school-master, loving, kind, teacher, parents', obey, commands, disobedient, never, wrong, always, truth, brothers, sisters, beautiful, disgraceful, courageous, James's, Charles's, William's, princes', princess's, brother-in-law's.

OBS.—To avoid the double hissing sound of *s*, the possessive case is sometimes indicated by the apostrophe only, the *s* being omitted: as, Moses' rod; the princess' portrait; for conscience' sake. As a rule, however, the *s* should always be used.

A noun in the possessive case is an adjective adjunct. It may be changed into a simple phrase adjunct by using the preposition *of* and the noun in the objective case; as, *The deer's horns,*—equivalent to *The horns of the deer.*

4. *Construct a sentence from each of the following, changing the phrase form into the possessive, or the possessive into the phrase.*

The cunning of the fox. The sagacity of elephants. The bleating of the sheep. The diamonds of the princess. Birds' nests. The kindness of the lady. The dresses of the ladies. The king's authority. The teacher's efforts. The patriotism of Washington. The enterprise of Columbus. The kindness of William Penn. The telescope of Lord Rosse. The works of Charles Dickens.

5. *Write three sentences on* **sheep**, *using the word in the singular and plural, and in the nominative, possessive, and objective case.*

6. *Write three sentences, in a similar manner, on the following subjects:—*

Tooth, valley, fox, calf, fly, father-in-law, spoonful, goose, child, woman, nephew, niece, empress, governor, governess.

Questions for Review.

How are the articles distinguished? Define each. Into what general classes are nouns divided? Define each. What particular classes are included among common nouns? Define each. What are modifications? What are the modifications of nouns? Define each. How many persons are there? Define each. How many numbers? Define each. How is the plural number of nouns regularly formed? Mention some of the irregular modes of forming the plural. How many genders are there? Define each. When is a noun said to be common in gender, or of the common gender? In what ways are the sexes denoted? How many cases have nouns? Define each. What is meant by the *form* of a word? How is the possessive case formed? What is the declension of a noun? Decline *friend*, *man*, *fox*, *fly*.

V.—ADJECTIVES.—CLASSES.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, **common, proper, numeral, pronominal, participial,** and **compound.**

A **common adjective** is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, *Good*, *bad*, *peaceful*, *warlike*—*eastern*, *western*, *outer*, *inner*.

OBS.—The word *epithet* has the same meaning as *adjective*. It signifies *added to*.

A **proper adjective** is one that is formed from a proper name; as, *American*, *English*, *Platonic*.

A **numeral adjective** is one that expresses a definite number; as, *One*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *etc.*

Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely,

1. *Cardinal;* as, One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, etc.
2. *Ordinal;* as, First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, etc.
3. *Multiplicative;* as, Single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, etc.

A **pronominal adjective** is a definitive word which

may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood; as, "*All* [men] join to guard what *each* [man] desires to gain."

The following are the principal pronominal adjectives: *All, any, both, each, either, every, few, former, first, latter, last, many, neither, none, one, other, same, some, such, this, that, which, what.*

A **participial adjective** is one that has the form of a participle; as, An *amusing* story.

A **compound adjective** is one that consists of two or more words joined together; as, *Nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed.*

Exercise.

Classify the adjectives in the following, and state to what sub-class each of the numeral adjectives belongs:

Fragrant flowers. Ripe fruit. Abundant harvests. Useful books. An interesting tale. Roman soldiers. An outer room. A charming picture. Twenty dollars. The German language. An old-fashioned chair. The fourth president. The other presidents. All things. Quadruple measure. Thirty-five cents. The lowing herd. The nineteenth century. A dark-eyed maiden. Ten Arabic figures. The Roman notation. Everlasting life. A beloved object. The Augustan age. Triple time. A fresh-looking youth. A milk-white horse.

VI.—ADJECTIVES.—MODIFICATIONS.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of **comparison.**

Comparison is a variation of the adjective, to express quality in different degrees; as, *hard, harder, hardest.*

There are three degrees of comparison; the **positive,** the **comparative,** and the **superlative.**

The **positive degree** is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form; as, *hard, soft, good.*

The **comparative degree** is that which exceeds the positive; as, *harder, softer, better.*

The **superlative degree** is that which is not exceeded; as, *hardest*, *softest*, *best*.

Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of different degrees, cannot be compared; as, *two*, *second*, *all*, *total*, *immortal*, *infinite*.

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, skillful, *more* skillful, *most* skillful,—skillful, *less* skillful, *least* skillful.

Diminution of quality is expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs *less* and *least*: as, *wise*, *less wise*, *least wise*; *famous*, *less famous*, *least famous*.

Most adjectives of more than one syllable, must be compared by means of the adverbs; because they do not admit a change of termination: thus, we may say, *virtuous*, *more virtuous*, *most virtuous*; but not *virtuous*, *virtuouser*, *virtuousest*.

Adjectives are regularly compared, when the comparative degree is expressed by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est*, to them; as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
great,	greater,	greatest.
wide,	wider,	widest.
hot,	hotter,	hottest.

The method of comparison by *er* and *est*, is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and to dissyllables ending in *y* or mute *e*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *good*, *better*, *best*; *bad* or *ill*, *worse*, *worst*; *little*, *less*, *least*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *many*, *more*, *most*; *far*, *farther*, *farthest*; *late*, *later* or *latter*, *latest* or *last*.

OBS.—The prefixing of an adverb can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The words may with more propriety be taken separately, the *degree* being ascribed to the adverb, or to each word.

Exercise.

Compare the following adjectives, regularly, irregularly, or by means of adverbs, as each may require:—

Long, wise, gentle, noble, famous, useful, fortunate, happy, elegant, little, small, many, few, late, early, virtuous, beautiful, narrow, simple.

VII.—PRONOUNS.—CLASSES.

Pronouns are divided into three classes; **personal, relative,** and **interrogative.**

A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun that shows by its form of what person it is.

That is, the word itself shows whether it is of the first, second, or third person.

The *simple* personal pronouns are five: namely, *I*, of the first person; *thou*, of the second person; *he*, *she*, and *it*, of the third person.

The *compound* personal pronouns are also five: namely, *myself*, of the first person; *thyself*, of the second person; *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, of the third person.

The compound personal pronouns are used when an action reverts upon the agent, or for special emphasis; as, "He injured *himself*."—"He *himself* is to blame."

A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun that represents an antecedent word or phrase, and connects different clauses of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*; and the compounds *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, *whatever* or *whatsoever*.

What is a kind of double relative, equivalent to *that which*, or *those which*; and is, therefore, to be considered as including both the *antecedent* and the *relative*.

An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

The interrogative pronouns are, *who*, *which*, and *what*; being the same in form as the relatives.

Who is usually applied to persons only; which, though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to brute animals and inanimate things; what, as a mere pronoun, is applied to things only; that is applied indifferently to persons, animals, and things.

What is sometimes equivalent to an article or adjective and a relative, being placed before the noun which it represents: as, "*What* money we had was taken away;" that is, *The* money *which* we had, etc. —"*What* man but enters, dies;" that is, *Any* man *who*, etc. The compound *whatever* or *whatsoever* has the same construction.

VIII.—PRONOUNS.—MODIFICATIONS AND DECLENSION.

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns; namely, *Persons*, *Numbers*, *Genders*, and *Cases*.

In the personal pronoun, most of these properties are indicated by the words themselves; in the relative pronoun, it is necessary to refer to the antecedent which it represents; and in the interrogative to the word, usually in the answer, which it represents; as, "*Who* did this? John."

The gender of the personal pronouns of the first and second person is to be determined by referring to the words for which they are used.

Declension of Pronouns.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:—

I, of the *first person.*

Sing.	*Nom.*	I,	**Plur.**	*Nom.*	we,
	Poss.	my, *or* mine,		*Poss.*	our, *or* ours,
	Obj.	me;		*Obj.*	us.

Thou, of the *second person.*

Sing.	*Nom.*	thou,	**Plur.**	*Nom.*	ye, *or* you,
	Poss.	thy, *or* thine,		*Poss.*	your, *or* yours,
	Obj.	thee;		*Obj.*	you.

He, of the *third person.*

Sing.	*Nom.*	he,	**Plur.**	*Nom.*	they,
	Poss.	his,		*Poss.*	their, *or* theirs.
	Obj.	him;		*Obj.*	them.

She, of the *third person.*

Sing.	*Nom.* she,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* they,
	Poss. her, *or* hers,		*Poss.* their, *or* theirs,
	Obj. her;		*Obj.* them.

It, of the *third person.*

Sing.	*Nom.* it,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* they,
	Poss. its,		*Poss.* their, *or* theirs,
	Obj. it;		*Obj.* them.

The compound personal pronouns all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective cases; as,

Sing.	*Nom.* myself,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* ourselves,
	Poss. ———		*Poss.* ———
	Obj. myself;		*Obj.* ourselves.

The relative and the interrogative pronouns are thus declined:—

Who, *applied only to persons.*

Sing.	*Nom.* who,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* who,
	Poss. whose,		*Poss.* whose,
	Obj. whom;		*Obj.* whom.

Which, *applied to animals and things.*

Sing.	*Nom.* which,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* which,
	Poss. *———		*Poss.* ———
	Obj. which;		*Obj.* which.

What, *generally applied to things.*

Sing.	*Nom.* what,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* what,
	Poss. ———		*Poss.* ———
	Obj. what;		*Obj.* what.

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* *Whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; as, "A religion *whose* origin is divine."—*Blair.*

That, *applied to persons, animals, and things.*

Sing.	*Nom.* that,	**Plur.**	*Nom.* that,
	Poss. ———		*Poss.* ———
	Obj. that;		*Obj.* that.

The compound relative pronouns, *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, and *whatever* or *whatsoever*, are declined in the same manner as the simples, *who*, *which*, *what*.

Exercises.

1. *Write the nominative plural of the following pronouns :—*
I, thou, he, she, it, who, which, what, that.

2. *Write the declension of the following :—*
Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, whosoever.

3. *Correct the form of each of the following :—*
Her's, it's, our's, your's, their's, who's, hisself, theirselves.

4. *Write the objective singular and plural of all the simple pronouns.*

5. *Write sentences, each containing one of the following pronouns :—*
Him, them, me, their, myself, himself, themselves, who, whom, which, what, that, whoever, whomsoever, whichever.

Analysis.—Clauses.

When simple sentences are connected, they form **compound** or **complex sentences,** and are then called **clauses.**

A **clause,** therefore, is a division of a compound or a complex sentence.

Compound or complex clauses are sometimes called **members.**

A clause used as one of the principal parts of a sentence, or as an **adjunct** to any word in it, is called a **dependent clause.**

The clause on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, is called the **principal clause.**

A **complex sentence** is one composed of a principal clause and one or more dependent clauses.

When neither of the component clauses of a sentence is dependent, it is called a **compound sentence.**

Clauses may be connected by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or adverbs (then called **conjunctive adverbs**).

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun, is often called a **relative clause.**

The relative clause is a dependent clause, and the sentence in which it occurs is therefore complex. It is not, however, always a *modifying* clause, being sometimes used to express an *additional fact.* Thus in the sentence, "This is the man that committed the deed," the relative clause modifies the noun *man;* but in the sentence, "I gave the book to John, who has lost it," it is equivalent to "and he has lost it." In each case it is used like an adjective.

When adjuncts are used to change the meaning of the term to which they are applied, they are often called **modifications:** as, A *good* boy.—An *honest* man.—The fire burns *brightly.*

Exercises.

Analysis.

State whether the sentence is complex or compound; separate it into its component clauses; analyze each as in the previous examples.

EXAMPLE 1.—"The messenger who was sent, has returned."

A complex declarative sentence; the principal clause is, *The messenger has returned,* and the dependent clause is, *Who was sent,* an adjunct of *messenger;* the connective word is *who.*

The subject noun of the principal clause is *messenger;* the predicate verb is, *has returned;* the adjuncts of the subject noun are *the,* and the relative clause, *who was sent;* the predicate contains no adjuncts. The subject of the dependent clause, is *who,* and the predicate, *was sent;* neither has any adjuncts.

EXAMPLE 2.—"Deeds are fruit, but words are only leaves."

A compound declarative sentence; consisting of the two simple clauses, *Deeds are fruit* and *Words are only leaves,* connected by *but.*

The subject of the first clause is *deeds;* the predicate is *are fruit,* consisting of the verb *are* and the attribute noun *fruit.* The subject of the second clause is *words;* the predicate, *are only leaves,* consisting of the verb *are* and its adjunct *only,* and the attribute noun *leaves.*

Children who disobey their parents, deserve punishment. The young man who embezzled his employer's money, was yesterday arrested. Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love covereth all sins. He that walketh

uprightly, walketh surely. Them that honor me I will honor. I immediately perceived the object which he pointed out. Who can respect a man that has lost his self-respect? Whoever dreads punishment, suffers it already. He imprudently reported what his friend had told him. You may purchase whatever you need. What cannot be prevented must be endured. You should carefully avoid rudeness, which always excites ill-will. Cæsar, who conquered many nations, was assassinated. Art is long, and time is fleeting. Virtue is its own reward, and vice brings its own punishment. We always respect a man who scrupulously observes the truth. Washington, who faithfully served his country, was universally admired. Every one despised Benedict Arnold, who betrayed his country. War is the law of violence; peace, the law of love.

Parsing.—(Example 1.)

The is the definite article, limiting the signification of the noun *messenger*.

Messenger is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, common in gender, and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *has returned*.

Who is a relative pronoun, representing the antecedent *messenger* in the third person, singular number, and common gender: it is in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *was sent*.

Was sent is a verb, representing its subject as acted upon.

Has returned is a verb, representing its subject as acting.

Construction.

1. *Write five compound sentences, each consisting of two simple clauses, connected by* **and** *or* **but**.

2. *Write five complex sentences, each containing a simple relative clause.*

Punctuation.—The simple clauses composing a compound sentence should be separated by a comma; but when a comma is used to separate the parts of either, a semicolon should be employed.

A relative clause should be separated by a comma, unless it is used as a modifying adjunct.

When a relative clause is a modifying adjunct, it can often be changed to an adjective or participle; and the sentence will then become simple. Thus, *The pupil who is diligent will excel*, can be changed to, *The diligent pupil will excel*. Sometimes a phrase consisting of a noun and an adjective can be substituted for the relative clause and the antecedent. Thus, *He who labors faithfully will succeed*, is equivalent to, *A faithful laborer will succeed*.

3. *Change the following complex into simple sentences by either of these two methods :—*

No person that has reason would believe that statement. He who does wrong should be punished. A boy who plays truant will come to shame. Children who disobey their parents cannot be happy. Lines that are parallel never meet. A figure that has three angles is a triangle. He who tells an untruth will get into trouble and disgrace. They who slander others break the divine commandments. They who rob birds of their nests are very cruel.

When the relative clause is not a modifying adjunct, the sentence can be made compound by substituting for the relative pronoun a conjunction and a personal pronoun. Thus, *John, who committed the fault, has been forgiven,* may be changed to, *John committed the fault, but he has been forgiven.*

4. *Change in this manner the following complex to compound sentences :—*

Use such conjunctions as *and, if, but, because, since.*

The eye, that sees all things, cannot see itself. Mr. Brown, who was so seriously injured, has recovered. Washington, who was a true patriot, saved his country. Arnold, who betrayed his country, was despised. Mr. Smith's brother, who went to Europe last year, has returned. James's book, which his father bought for him, has been lost. Alice's new silk dress, which her mother gave her, is spoiled. William's brother Henry, who told an untruth, cannot be believed.

Composition.

Write a composition consisting of simple, compound, and complex sentences, describing each of the following objects, stating its use, the parts of which it is composed, the materials of which each of these parts is made, and what different trades or occupations are concerned in its manufacture.

A book. A slate. A pen. A house. A plough. A piano. A ship. A chair. A skate. A bottle. A stove. A carpet. A knife. A china tea set. A map. A globe. A watch. A clock. A bell. A carriage.

The teacher should supply all information that may be needed by the pupils, in order to make the descriptions sufficiently full and accurate, but should be careful that the pupils use their own language, and apply the rules and principles already learned. Where others are violated, the corrections may be made arbitrarily. In this way, the habit of correctly using language will be cultivated.

Questions for Review.

Into what classes may adjectives be divided? Define each. Of how many kinds are numeral adjectives? Give an example of each. Name the principal pronominal adjectives. What modifications have adjectives? What is comparison? How many degrees are there? Define each. What adjectives cannot be compared? How are adjectives regularly compared? Give examples of irregular comparison.

Into what classes are pronouns divided? Define each. What kind of a pronoun is *what?* How are the relatives *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that* applied? To what is the relative *what* sometimes equivalent? What modifications have pronouns? How are these indicated? Decline each of the personal pronouns. Each of the relative pronouns.

What is a clause? A member? What is a dependent clause? A relative clause? What is a complex sentence? A compound sentence? When are adjuncts called modifications?

IX.—VERBS.—CLASSES.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their *form*, into four classes: **regular, irregular, redundant,** and **defective.**

A **regular verb** is a verb that forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed;* as, *love*, *loved*, *loving*, *loved.*

Whether a verb is regular or irregular depends upon the changes which it undergoes in order to express differences in the mode, time, and other circumstances of the action or being indicated by the verb. Thus, the verb *walk* becomes *walked* in order to express a past action; while the participle is derived by adding *ing* or *ed;* as, *walking*, *walked.* These additional syllables, which change the primitive form of the verb, are called *inflections.* In some languages they are very numerous, but in English they are quite few.

The *preterit* is the form for the past.

There are *four parts* in every verb from which all others are derived: the *present*, the *past* or *preterit*, the *imperfect participle* (always ending in *ing*), and the *perfect participle.* When these are given, all other parts of the verb become known. Hence they are called the **principal parts.**

An **irregular verb** is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed;* as, *see*, *saw*, *seeing*, *seen*.

A **redundant verb** is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, *thrive*, *thrived* or *throve*, *thriving*, *thrived* or *thriven*.

A **defective verb** is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, *beware*, *ought*, *quoth*.

Regular verbs form their preterit and perfect participle by adding *d* to final *e*, and *ed* to all other terminations. The verb *hear*, *heard*, *hearing*, *heard*, adds *d* to *r*, and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided again, with respect to their *signification*, into four classes: **active-transitive, active-intransitive, passive,** and **neuter.**

An **active-transitive verb** is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing for its object; as, "Cain *slew Abel*."

An **active-intransitive verb** is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, "John *walks*."

A **passive verb** is a verb that represents its subject, or nominative, as being acted upon; as, "I *am compelled*."

It must be understood that a passive verb expresses action, but action received, not performed, by the subject. Thus, the *object of the action* becomes the *subject of the verb*. Hence, every active-transitive verb may be changed into a passive verb by making the object of the former the subject of the latter.

A **neuter verb** is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being; as, "Thou *art*."—"He *sleeps*."

Exercises.

1. *Classify all the verbs in the following sentences, both as to form and signification :—*

[See list of Irregular Verbs, page 79.]

He was chosen president. Mr. Smith drove a skittish horse. The cup was broken. I have written a letter. He won the wager. John is honest. The plant grows. The dog is howling. The ship sailed yesterday. The boiler burst. Beware of slanderers. The father chid his son. The king sat on his throne. The sluggard sleeps too long. The boy swam across the stream. The cat sprung on the mouse. He has given away his knife. The river is frozen.

2. *Construct another sentence from each of the verbs in the above exercise, using a different form.*

3. *Write three sentences, each containing a regular verb ;—also three, each containing an irregular verb ;—three, each containing a redundant verb ;—and one containing a defective verb.*

X.—VERBS.—MODIFICATIONS.

The modifications, or inflections, of verbs are for two purposes: 1. To express some particular manner or time of the being, action, or passion. 2. To indicate the person and number of the subject or nominative. Hence it is said:—

Verbs have modifications of four kinds; namely, **moods, tenses, persons,** and **numbers.**

Moods.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

There are five moods: the **infinitive,** the **indicative,** the **potential,** the **subjunctive,** and the **imperative.**

The **infinitive mood** is that form of the verb which expresses the being, action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number ; as, *To read, to speak.*

The infinitive mood has no person or number—that is, no inflections to indicate person or number, because it has no subject nominative. It may have a subject, that is, a word indicating the person or thing of whom the being or action is indirectly asserted; but this word must be in the objective case, depending upon some other verb. Thus, in the sentence, *I told John to write*, John is the subject of the infinitive *write*, and the object of the verb *told;* hence, in the objective case.

A verb in any other mood than the infinitive is called, by way of distinction, a **finite verb.**

The **indicative mood** is that form of the verb which simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question: as, I *write;* you *know; Do* you *know?*

The **potential mood** is that form of the verb which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity of the being, action, or passion: as, I *can read;* we *must go.*

The **subjunctive mood** is that form of the verb which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, and contingent; as, "If thou *go*, see that thou *offend* not."

The **imperative mood** is that form of the verb which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, "*Depart* thou."—"*Be comforted.*"

Tenses.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb which distinguish time.

There are six tenses; the **present,** the **imperfect,** the **perfect,** the **pluperfect,** the **first-future,** and the **second-future.**

The **present tense** is that which expresses what now *exists*, or *is taking* place: as, "I *hear* a noise; somebody *is coming.*"

The **imperfect tense** is that which expresses what *took* place, or *was occurring*, in time fully past: as, "I *saw* him yesterday; he *was walking* out."

The **perfect tense** is that which expresses what *has taken* place, within some period of time not yet fully past; as, "I *have seen* him to-day."

The **pluperfect tense** is that which expresses what *had taken* place, at some past time mentioned; as, "I *had seen* him, when I met you."

The **first-future tense** is that which expresses what *will take* place hereafter; as, "I *shall see* him again."

The **second-future tense** is that which expresses what *will have taken* place, at some future time mentioned; as, "I *shall have seen* him by to-morrow noon."

There are two circumstances on which the distinction of tense is based:—

1. Whether the time is *present*, *past*, or *future*.

2. Whether the action is *perfect* or *imperfect*—complete or incomplete—in regard to each distinction of time.

Hence, there must be six tenses to express this twofold distinction:—

1. Present 2. Past 3. Future	Imperfect or Indefinite	Present Tense. Imperfect Tense. First Future Tense.
4. Present 5. Past 6. Future	Perfect .	Perfect Tense. Pluperfect Tense. Second Future Tense.

Inflections.

As there are *two numbers* and *three persons*, there must be six distinctions for which a verb may be inflected, or changed, to agree with its subject; but, as already stated, the inflections used in English are very few. Thus, the verbs *love* and *go*, in the indicative mood, present tense, have only the following forms:—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1*st per.* love,	love,	1*st per.* go,	go,
2*d per.* love*st*,	love,	2*d per.* go*est*,	go,
3*d per.* love*s*;	love,	3*d per.* go*es*;	go.

It will be seen that there are only two inflections, both in the singular: the addition of *st* or *est* for the second person, and *s* or *es* for the third; the first person, singular, and all the persons in the plural being alike.

The third person singular was anciently formed in *th* or *eth*, but this inflection is now only used in the formal or solemn style.

The only regular terminations that are added to verbs, are *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, *st* or *est*, *s* or *es*, *th* or *eth*. *Ing*, and *th* or *eth*, always add a syllable to the verb, except in *doth*, *hath*, *saith*. The rest, whenever their sound will unite with that of the final syllable of the verb, are added without increasing the number of syllables; otherwise, they are separately pronounced.

XI.—CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

The **conjugation** of a verb is a regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons, numbers, and participles.

There are four **principal parts** in the conjugation of every simple and complete verb; namely, the **present,** the **preterit,** the **imperfect participle,** and the **perfect participle.** A verb which wants any of these parts, is called **defective.**

An **auxiliary** is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of another verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion.

The auxiliaries are *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*, with their variations.

OBS.—Some of these, especially *do*, *be*, and *have*, are also used as principal verbs.

Verbs Conjugated.

Simple Form, Active or Neuter.

The simplest form of an English conjugation, is that which makes the present and imperfect tenses without auxiliaries; but even in these, auxiliaries are required for the potential mood, and are often preferred for the indicative.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **LOVE.**

Principal Parts.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To love.
Perfect Tense. To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1*st per.* I love,	1*st per.* We love,
2*d per.* Thou lovest,	2*d per.* You love,
3*d per.* He loves;	3*d per.* They love.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *do* to the verb:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I do love,	1. We do love,
2. Thou dost love,	2. You do love,
3. He does love;	3. They do love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, in its simple form, is the *preterit.* In all regular verbs, it adds *d* or *ed* to the present, but in others it is formed variously.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I loved,	1. We loved,
2. Thou lovedst,	2. You loved,
3. He loved;	3. They loved.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *did* to the present:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I did love,	1. We did love,
2. Thou didst love,	2. You did love,
3. He did love;	3. They did love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *have* to the perfect participle:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have loved,	1. We have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,	2. You have loved,
3. He has loved;	3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *had* to the perfect participle:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had loved,	1. We had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,	2. You had loved,
3. He had loved;	3. They had loved.

First-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *shall* or *will* to the present:—

1. Simply to express a future action or event:

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall love,	1. We shall love,
2. Thou wilt love,	2. You will love,
3. He will love;	3. They will love.

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat:

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I will love,	1. We will love,
2. Thou shalt love,	2. You shall love,
3. He shall love;	3. They shall love.

Second-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* to the perfect participle :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have loved,	1. We shall have loved,
2. Thou wilt have loved,	2. You will have loved,
3. He will have loved ;	3. They will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *may*, *can*, or *must*, to the radical verb :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may love,	1. We may love,
2. Thou mayst love,	2. You may love,
3. He may love ;	3. They may love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, to the radical verb :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might love,	1. We might love,
2. Thou mightst love,	2. You might love,
3. He might love ;	3. They might love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*, to the perfect participle :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may have loved,	1. We may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,	2. You may have loved,
3. He may have loved ;	3. They may have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*, to the perfect participle :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might have loved,	1. We might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,	2. You might have loved,
3. He might have loved ;	3. They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense is generally used to express some condition on which a *future* action or event is affirmed.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I love,	1. If we love,
2. If thou love,	2. If you love,
3. If he love;	3. If they love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, as well as the imperfect of the potential mood, with which it is frequently connected, is an indefinite tense, referring to time past, present, or future.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I loved,	1. If we loved,
2. If thou loved,	2. If you loved,
3. If he loved;	3. If they loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Love [thou,] *or* Do thou love.
Plural. 2. Love [ye *or* you,] *or* Do you love.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *Imperfect,*	Loving.
2. *Perfect,*	Loved.
3. *Preperfect,*	Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE.

First Person, Singular.

INDICATIVE. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. POTENTIAL. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If I love, If I loved.

Second Person, Singular.

DICATIVE. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst l, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. POTENTIAL. Thou t love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved, Thou mightst loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If thou love, If thou loved. IMPERA-. Love [thou], *or* Do thou love.

Third Person, Singular.

DICATIVE. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He love, He will have loved. POTENTIAL. He may love, He might He may have loved, He might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If he If he loved.

First Person, Plural.

DICATIVE. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We love, We shall have loved. POTENTIAL. We may love, We might We may have loved, We might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If we If we loved.

Second Person, Plural.

DICATIVE. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, will love, You will have loved. POTENTIAL. You may love, You t love, You may have loved, You might have loved. SUBJUNC-. If you love, If you loved. IMPERATIVE. Love [ye *or* you], *or* ou love.

Third Person, Plural.

DICATIVE. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had , They will love, They will have loved. POTENTIAL. They may They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. UNCTIVE. If they love, If they loved.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **SEE.**

Principal Parts.

nt.	*Preterit.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
e.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To see.
Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees;	3. They see.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He saw;	3. They saw.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He has seen;	3. They have seen.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had seen,	1. We had seen,
2. Thou hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He had seen;	3. They had seen.

First-future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall see,	1. We shall see,
2. Thou wilt see,	2. You will see,
3. He will see;	3. They will see.

Second-future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have seen,	1. We shall have seen,
2. Thou wilt have seen,	2. You will have seen,
3. He will have seen;	3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may see,	1. We may see,
2. Thou mayst see,	2. You may see,
3. He may see;	3. They may see.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might see,	1. We might see,
2. Thou mightst see,	2. You might see,
3. He might see;	3. They might see.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may have seen,	1. We may have seen,
2. Thou mayst have seen,	2. You may have seen,
3. He may have seen;	3. They may have seen.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might have seen,	1. We might have seen,
2. Thou mightst have seen,	2. You might have seen,
3. He might have seen;	3. They might have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I see,	1. If we see,
2. If thou see,	2. If you see,
3. If he see;	3. If they see.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I saw,	1. If we saw,
2. If thou saw,	2. If you saw,
3. If he saw;	3. If they saw.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. See [thou,] *or* Do thou see.
Plural. 2. See [ye *or* you,] *or* Do you see.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*	2. *The Perfect.*	3. *The Preperfect*
Seeing.	Seen.	Having seen.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE.

Principal Parts.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Be.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be.
Perfect Tense. To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,
3. He is;	3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,*	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

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* *Wert* is sometimes used in poetry for *wast;* as, "Vainly *wert* thou wed."—*Byron.* "Whate'er thou art or *wert.*"—*Id.*

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

First-future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,	2. You will be,
3. He will be;	3. They will be.

Second-future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,	2. You will have been,
3. He will have been;	3. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may be,	1. We may be,
2. Thou mayst be,	2. You may be,
3. He may be;	3. They may be.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might be,	1. We might be,
2. Thou mightst be,	2. You might be,
3. He might be;	3. They might be.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may have been,	1. We may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,	2. You may have been,
3. He may have been;	3. They may have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might have been,	1. We might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,	2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;	3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou wert, *or* were,	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou,] *or* Do thou be.
Plural. 2. Be [ye *or* you,] *or* Do you be.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*	2. *The Perfect.*	3. *The Preperfect.*
Being.	Been.	Having been.

Compound Form, Active or Neuter.

Active and *neuter* verbs may also be conjugated, by adding the imperfect participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes: as, I *am writing;* He *is sitting.*

This compound form of conjugation denotes a *continuance* of the action or state of being, and is, on many occasions, preferable to the simple form of the verb.

COMPOUND FORM OF THE VERB **READ.**

Principal Parts of the Simple Verb.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Rēad.	Rĕad.	Rēading.	Rĕad.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be reading.
Perfect Tense. To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am reading,	1. We are reading,
2. Thou art reading,	2. You are reading,
3. He is reading;	3. They are reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was reading,	1. We were reading,
2. Thou wast reading,	2. You were reading,
3. He was reading;	3. They were reading.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been reading,	1. We have been reading,
2. Thou hast been reading,	2. You have been reading,
3. He has been reading;	3. They have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been reading,	1. We had been reading,
2. Thou hadst been reading,	2. You had been reading,
3. He had been reading;	3. They had been reading.

First-future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be reading,	1. We shall be reading,
2. Thou wilt be reading,	2. You will be reading,
3. He will be reading;	3. They will be reading.

Second-future Tense.

Singular. 1. I shall have been reading,
2. Thou wilt have been reading,
3. He will have been reading;

Plural. 1. We shall have been reading,
2. You will have been reading,
3. They will have been reading.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may be reading,	1. We may be reading,
2. Thou mayst be reading,	2. You may be reading,
3. He may be reading;	3. They may be reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might be reading,	1. We might be reading,
2. Thou mightst be reading,	2. You might be reading,
3. He might be reading;	3. They might be reading.

Perfect Tense.

Singular. 1. I may have been reading,
2. Thou mayst have been reading,
3. He may have been reading;

Plural. 1. We may have been reading,
2. You may have been reading,
3. They may have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. 1. I might have been reading,
2. Thou mightst have been reading,
3. He might have been reading;

Plural. 1. We might have been reading,
2. You might have been reading,
3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be reading,	1. If we be reading,
2. If thou be reading,	2. If you be reading,
3. If he be reading;	3. If they be reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were reading,	1. If we were reading,
2. If thou wert reading,	2. If you were reading,
3. If he were reading;	3. If they were reading.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou] reading, *or* Do thou be reading.
Plural. 2. Be [ye *or* you] reading, *or* Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*	2. *The Perfect.*	3. *The Preperfect.*
Being reading.	————	Having been reading.

Form of Passive Verbs.

Passive verbs, in English, are always compound, being formed from active-transitive verbs, by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes. Thus, from the active-transitive verb *love*, is formed the passive verb *be loved.*

OBS.—In the compound *forms* of conjugation, the *imperfect participle* is sometimes taken in a *passive* sense: as, "The goods *are selling;* The ships *are building;*" and the *perfect participle* of an active-intransitive verb, may have a *neuter* signification: as, "I *am come;* He *is risen;* They *are fallen.*" The former are *passive*, and the latter, *neuter verbs.*

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VERB
BE LOVED.

Principal Parts of the Active Verb.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be loved.
Perfect Tense. To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am loved,	1. We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	2. You are loved,
3. He is loved;	3. They are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was loved,	1. We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	2. You were loved,
3. He was loved;	3. They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been loved,	1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	2. You have been loved,
3. He has been loved;	3. They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been loved,	1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	2. You had been loved,
3. He had been loved;	3. They had been loved.

First-Future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be loved,	1. We shall be loved,
2. Thou wilt be loved,	2. You will be loved,
3. He will be loved;	3. They will be loved.

Second-future Tense.

Singular. 1. I shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved,
3. He will have been loved;

Plural. 1. We shall have been loved,
2. You will have been loved,
3. They will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may be loved,	1. We may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,	2. You may be loved,
3. He may be loved;	3. They may be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might be loved,	1. We might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,	2. You might be loved,
3. He might be loved;	3. They might be loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular. 1. I may have been loved,
2. Thou mayst have been loved,
3. He may have been loved;

Plural. 1. We may have been loved,
2. You may have been loved,
3. They may have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. 1. I might have been loved,
2. Thou mightst have been loved,
3. He might have been loved.

Plural. 1. We might have been loved,
2. You might have been loved,
3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be loved,	1. If we be loved,
2. If thou be loved,	2. If you be loved,
3. If he be loved;	3. If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were loved,	1. If we were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,	2. If you were loved,
3. If he were loved;	3. If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou] loved, *or* Do thou be loved.
Plural. 2. Be [ye *or* you] loved, *or* Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*	2. *The Perfect.*	3. *The Preperfect.*
Being loved.	Loved.	Having been loved.

Form of Negation.

A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and the participles take the negative first:—

INFINITIVE. Not to love, Not to have loved. INDICATIVE. I love not, *or* I do not love, I loved not, *or* I did not love, I have not loved, I

had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. POTENTIAL. I may, can, *or* must not love; I might, could, would, *or* should not love; I may, can, *or* must not have loved; I might, could, would, *or* should not have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If I love not, If I loved not. PARTICIPLES. Not loving, Not loved, Not having loved.

Form of Question.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary :—

INDICATIVE. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? POTENTIAL. May, can, *or* must I love? Might, could, would, *or* should I love? May, can, *or* must I have loved? Might, could, would, *or* should I have loved?

Form of Question with Negation.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively and negatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb *not* after the verb, or after the first auxiliary :—

INDICATIVE. Do I not love? Did I not love? Have I not loved? Had I not loved? Shall I not love? Shall I not have loved? POTENTIAL. May, can, *or* must I not love? Might, could, would, *or* should I not love? May, can, *or* must I not have loved? Might, could, would, *or* should I not have loved?

List of the Irregular Verbs.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Be,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore *or* bare,	bearing,	borne *or* born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beat *or* beaten.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.

* *Borne* signifies *carried*; *born* signifies *brought forth*.

List of the Irregular Verbs.—*Continued.*

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Bid,	bid *or* bade,	bidding,	bid *or* bidden.
Bide,	bode,	biding,	bode.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten *or* bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden *or* chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,*	cleft *or* clove,	cleaving,	cleft *or* cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk *or* drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Eat,	ĕat *or* ate,	eating,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Get,	got,	getting,	got *or* gotten.

* *Cleave*, to *split*, is irregular, as above; *cleave*, to *stick*, is regular, but *clave* was formerly used in the preterit, for *cleaved*.

List of the Irregular Verbs.—*Continued.*

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden *or* hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held *or* holden.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let
Lie (*to rest*),	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Outdo,	outdid,	outdoing,	outdone.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Read,	rĕad,	reading,	rĕad.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden.
Ring,	rang *or* rung,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Run,	ran *or* run,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.

List of the Irregular Verbs.—*Continued.*

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk *or* shrank,	shrinking,	shrunk *or* shrunken.
Sing,	sung *or* sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk *or* sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slid *or* slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten *or* smit.
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spitting,	spit.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung *or* sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode,	striding,	stridden *or* strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck *or* stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Swim,	swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden *or* trod.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.

List of the Irregular Verbs.—*Continued.*

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

Redundant Verbs.

The following table exhibits the redundant verbs as they are generally used, or as they may be used without grammatical impropriety. The preferable forms are placed first.

List of the Redundant Verbs.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Awake,	awoke *or* awaked,	awaking,	awaked.
Belay,	belaid *or* belayed,	belaying,	belaid *or* belayed.
Bend,	bent *or* bended,	bending,	bent *or* bended.
Bereave,	bereft *or* bereaved,	bereaving,	bereft *or* bereaved.
Bet,	betted *or* bet,	betting,	betted *or* bet.
Blend,	blended *or* blent,	blending,	blended *or* blent.
Bless,	blessed *or* blest,	blessing,	blessed *or* blest.
Build,	built *or* builded,	building,	built *or* builded.
Burn,	burned *or* burnt,	burning,	burned *or* burnt.
Catch,	caught *or* catched,	catching,	caught *or* catched.
Clothe,	clothed *or* clad,	clothing,	clothed *or* clad.
Crow,	crew *or* crowed,	crowing,	crowed.
Curse,	cursed *or* curst,	cursing,	cursed *or* curst.
Dare,	dared *or* durst,	daring,	dared.
Dig,	dug *or* digged,	digging,	dug *or* digged.
Dream,	dreamed *or* drĕamt,	dreaming,	dreamed *or* drĕamt.
Dress,	dressed *or* drest,	dressing,	dressed *or* drest.
Dwell,	dwelt *or* dwelled,	dwelling,	dwelt *or* dwelled.
Geld,	gelded *or* gelt,	gelding,	gelded *or* gelt.
Gild,	gilded *or* gilt,	gilding,	gilded *or* gilt.
Gird,	girded *or* girt,	girding,	girded *or* girt.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graven *or* graved.
Hang,	hanged *or* hung,	hanging,	hanged *or* hung.

List of the Redundant Verbs.—*Continued.*

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Imperf. Part.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Heave,	heaved *or* hove,	heaving,	heaved *or* hoven.
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed *or* hewn.
Kneel,	knelt *or* kneeled,	kneeling,	knelt *or* kneeled.
Knit,	knit *or* knitted,	knitting,	knit *or* knitted.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laded *or* laden.
Lean,	leaned *or* lĕant,	leaning,	leaned *or* lĕant.
Leap,	leaped *or* lĕapt,	leaping,	leaped *or* lĕapt.
Learn,	learned *or* learnt,	learning,	learned *or* learnt.
Light,	lighted *or* lit,	lighting,	lighted *or* lit.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed *or* mown.
Pen (to coop),	penned *or* pent,	penning,	penned *or* pent.
Quit,	quitted *or* quit,	quitting,	quitted *or* quit.
Rap,	rapped,	rapping,	rapped *or* rapt.
Reave,	reft *or* reaved,	reaving,	reft *or* reaved.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	riven *or* rived.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawed *or* sawn.
Seethe,	seethed *or* sod,	seething,	seethed *or* sodden.
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shaped *or* shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved *or* shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shearing,	sheared *or* shorn.
Shine,	shone *or* shined,	shining,	shone *or* shined.
Show,	showed,	showing,	shown *or* showed.
Slit,	slit *or* slitted,	slitting,	slit *or* slitted.
Smell,	smelled *or* smelt,	smelling,	smelled *or* smelt.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sown *or* sowed.
Speed,	sped *or* speeded,	speeding,	sped *or* speeded.
Spell,	spelled *or* spelt,	spelling,	spelled *or* spelt.
Spill,	spilled *or* spilt,	spilling,	spilled *or* spilt.
Split,	split *or* splitted,	splitting,	split *or* splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled *or* spoilt,	spoiling,	spoiled *or* spoilt.
Stave,	staved *or* stove,	staving,	staved *or* stove.
Stay,	staid *or* stayed,	staying,	staid *or* stayed.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung *or* stringed.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed *or* strown.
Sweat,	sweat *or* sweated,	sweating,	sweat *or* sweated.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled *or* swollen.
Thrive,	thrived,	thriving,	thriven *or* thrived.
Wax,	waxed,	waxing,	waxed *or* waxen.
Wet,	wet *or* wetted,	wetting,	wet *or* wetted.
Wont,	wont,	wonting,	wont *or* wonted.
Work,	worked *or* wrought,	working,	worked *or* wrought.

Defective Verbs.

When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are, of course, also wanting. All the auxiliaries, except *do, be,* and *have,* are defective; but, as they become parts of other verbs, they do not *need* the parts which are technically said to be *wanting.*

The following list contains all the defective verbs, except *methinks,* with its preterit *methought,* which is impersonal and irregular (equivalent to *it thinks me—it seems to me*). Impersonal verbs are used only in the third person; as, *It rains.*

List of the Defective Verbs.

Present.	*Preterit.*	*Present.*	*Preterit.*
Beware,	———	Shall,	should.
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must,	must.	Wis,	wist.
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

Exercises.

1. *State the classes and modifications of the verbs in the following sentences:—*

He might have committed the deed. They could have gone, if they wished. She staid too long from home. He will have finished the work before you call. I will go out, unless it rain. Read the letter, and you will understand why he could not do it. What has been done cannot be repaired. The truth should always be told. The horse must be shod, or he will become lame. The merchant has failed. He cannot meet his expenses. I will never forsake my friend. The horse is too lame to be driven. The pond has been frozen over all winter. He is said to have lost his fortune. I was walking along the street. John has not been taught to behave himself. They could not have known what they were doing. He has been building his mansion for some time. The church has been finished several months. Does he intend to go to Europe this year? O, how happy she might have been! I would have told you, had I known it. Must you leave so soon? He must have been mad to have done the act. I will go, and you shall not prevent me. You shall do it, for I will compel you.

2. *Write sentences, each containing an active verb as directed in the following:—*

In the indicative mood, imperfect tense; potential, present; indicative, pluperfect; subjunctive, present; potential, pluperfect; indicative, second future; potential, perfect; indicative, imperfect; infinitive, present; imperative mood; indicative, first future; potential, imperfect; infinitive, perfect.

3. *Write sentences, each containing a passive verb with the same modifications as above.*

Questions for Review.

Into what classes are verbs divided with respect to their form? Define each. How are they divided with respect to their signification? Define each. What are the four principal parts of every verb? For what two purposes is a verb modified? What modifications have verbs? What are moods? How many are there? Define each. What are tenses? How many are there? Define each. On what is the distinction of tense based? What are the inflections of a regular verb in the indicative mood, present tense? What is the conjugation of a verb? What is an auxiliary verb? What is the compound form of an active verb? Give an example. What verbs are defective?

XII.—PARTICIPLES.—CLASSES.

A verb, in English, has three participles: the **imperfect, perfect,** and **preperfect.**

The **imperfect participle** is that which implies a continuance of the being, action, or passion; as, *loving* (active), *being loved* (passive).

The **perfect participle** is that which implies a completion of the being, action, or passion; as, *loved* (passive).

The **preperfect participle** is that which implies a previous completion of the being, action, or passion; as, *having loved* (active), *having been loved* (passive).

This participle is usually called the *pluperfect participle*, because, like the pluperfect tense, it indicates the completion of an act prior to

the performance of some other one. The term *preperfect* might be deemed more correct, literally, in either case. It was, however, applied only to the participle by the author of this work.

The imperfect participle of active verbs is always formed by adding *ing* to the radical verb; as, *look, looking.*

The imperfect participle of passive verbs is formed by prefixing *being* to the perfect participle; as, *being loved.*

The perfect participle is regularly formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the radical verb. It has always a passive meaning when used by itself.

For the perfect participle of irregular verbs, see lists, pp. 79, 83.

The preperfect participle of an active verb is formed by prefixing *having* to the perfect participle; that of a passive verb, by prefixing *having been;* as, *having written, having been written.*

Thus, the English verb, in the active form, has, in fact, only two participles—the *imperfect* and the *preperfect;* and in the passive, three—the *imperfect,* the *perfect,* and the *preperfect.*

Participles may, moreover, be divided into two classes: those which participate the properties of a verb and an adjective, and those which participate the properties of a verb and a noun. Those of the second class are sometimes called *gerundives.*

The following are examples of each:—

First Class.—Verb and Adjective.

He came *running* very swiftly.
She, *dying,* gave it to me.
The enemy *having been defeated* fled.
She stood *wringing* her hands.
Error *wounded* writhes in pain.
The Justice read *amused, amazed.*

Second Class.—Verb and Noun. (GERUNDIVES.)

She is fond of *reading* good books.
After *having paid* the money he retired.

He was released without *paying* his ransom.
In *keeping* His commandments there is great reward.
Before *leaving* the city he paid his debts.

OBS.—The use of a participle of the second class in other structures, though disputed by some grammarians, seems to be sanctioned by good usage. The following are examples:—

"*Hunting* deer is good sport." (Subject.)

"I am surprised at your *making* such a remark." (Governing a possessive.)

"On our *arriving* at the pier, all was in confusion."

Compare the latter with,

"On *arriving* at the pier, we found all in confusion."

In the former case, the insertion of *our* is required to prevent the participle's relation to *all;* in the latter, it is not required, as the participle properly relates to *we*.—EDITOR.

Exercises.

1. *Write the participles of the verbs given below in the following form:—*

Write

	Active.	*Passive.*
Imperfect.	Writing.	Being written.
Perfect.	———	Written.
Preperfect.	Having written.	Having been written.

Speak, seek, make, hurt, give, feed, wear, smite, keep, know, think, sow, work, clothe, show, strow, take, wear.

2. *Write sentences each containing a participle derived from one or more of these verbs.*

XIII.—ADVERBS.—CLASSES.

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes; namely, adverbs of **time,** of **place,** of **degree,** and of **manner.**

Adverbs of *time*, are those which answer to the question, *When? How long? How soon?* or *How often?* including

these which ask. Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of time present: as, *Now, yet, to-day, instantly.*
2. Of time past: as, *Already, lately, heretofore, since, ago.*
3. Of time to come: as, *To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth.*
4. Of time relative: as, *When, then, before, after, while.*
5. Of time absolute: as, *Always, ever, never.*
6. Of time repeated: as, *Often, seldom, daily, thrice.*
7. Of the order of time: as, *First, secondly, thirdly, etc.*

Adverbs of *place*, are those which answer to the question, *Where? Whither? Whence?* or *Whereabout?* including these which ask. Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of place in which: as, *Where, here, there, somewhere.*
2. Of place to which: as, *Whither, hither, thither.*
3. Of place from which: as, *Whence, hence, thence.*
4. Of the order of place: as, *First, secondly, thirdly.*

Adverbs of *degree*, are those which answer to the question, *How much? How little?* or, to the idea of *more or less.* Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of excess or abundance: as, *Much, chiefly, fully.*
2. Of equality: as, *Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as.*
3. Of deficiency, or abatement: as, *Little, scarcely, hardly.*
4. Of quantity: as, *How, ever so, somewhat.*

Adverbs of *manner*, are those which answer to the question, *How?* or, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show how a subject is regarded. Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of quality: as, *Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly*, and many others formed by adding *ly* to adjectives of quality.
2. Of affirmation: as, *Verily, truly, indeed, surely.*
3. Of negation: as, *Not, nowise.*
4. Of doubt: as, *Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance.*
5. Of mode: as, *Thus, so, somehow, like, else, otherwise.*
6. Of cause: as, *Why, wherefore, therefore.*

OBS.—The adverbs *here, there*, and *where*, when prefixed to prepositions, have the force of pronouns; as, *whereby*, used for *by which.* Compounds of this kind are, however, commonly considered adverbs.

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect the clauses of a sentence, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner: adverbs that are so used, are called **conjunctive adverbs**; as, *When, where, after, before, since, etc.*

Modifications.

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a few are *compared* after the manner of adjectives: as, *Soon, sooner, soonest;—often, oftener, oftenest;—long, longer, longest.*

The following are irregularly compared: *well, better, best;—badly* or *ill, worse, worst;—little, less, least;—much, more, most;—far, farther, farthest;—forth, further, furthest.*

Most adverbs of *quality* will admit the comparative adverbs *more* and *most, less* and *least,* before them: as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely,—culpably, less culpably, least culpably.*

Exercises in Construction.

1. *Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of manner.*
2. *Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of place.*
3. *Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of time.*
4. *Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of degree.*
5. *Write sentences, each containing one of the following adverbs:*

Always, whether, seldom, henceforth, sufficiently, often, sooner, truly, more, hereafter, since, first, chiefly, how, secondly, when, before, so, ill, why, as, perhaps, indeed.

XIV.—CONJUNCTIONS.—CLASSES.

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, **copulative** and **disjunctive.** Some of each of these sorts are **corresponsive.**

A **copulative conjunction** is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition: as, "He *and*

I shall not dispute; *for*, *if* he has any choice, I shall readily grant it."

A **disjunctive conjunction** is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning: as, "Be not overcome [by] evil, *but* overcome evil with good."

The **corresponsive conjunctions** are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers to the other; as, "John came *neither* eating *nor* drinking."

The following are the principal conjunctions:—

1. **Copulative;** *And, as, both, because, even, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.*

2. **Disjunctive;** *Or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.*

3. **Corresponsive;** *Both—and; as—as; as—so; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though,* or *although—yet.*

ANALYSIS.

Compound Subjects and Predicates.

Two or more subjects or predicates connected by a conjunction form a **compound subject** or **predicate;** as, "The horses and camels started and ran away."

Exercises.

Analyze the following sentences according to the example given, or as in preceding examples.

EXAMPLE.—Temperance and exercise strengthen the body, and improve the mind.

Analysis.

A simple declarative sentence. Subject, compound; consisting of *temperance* and *exercise*, connected by *and*. Predicate, also compound; consisting of *strengthen the body* and *improve the mind*. The first predicate verb is *strengthen*, and its object *body*, having the adjunct *the*. The second predicate verb is *improve*, and its object *mind*, having the adjunct *the*.

Parse as in preceding exercises, giving the classes and modifications of the verbs, participles, and adverbs.

Dissipation and vice enfeeble the body and destroy the mind. Time, patience, and industry overcome all obstacles. Truthfulness and honesty win esteem. Charles and William played truant, and were punished. Henry, Edward, and Mary went to the same school. Henry and Mary were diligent, but Edward neglected his studies, and fell into disgrace. Edward's father took him from school, and sent him to work. He afterward regretted his idleness, for he felt its sad consequences. Industry and virtue lead to honor, but sloth and carelessness end in shame.

Construction.

Construct sentences with compound subjects or predicates, by uniting two or more of the following simple sentences :—

Industry is essential to happiness. Honesty is essential to happiness. Temperance is essential to happiness.

The mind knows. The mind feels. The mind thinks.

The child creeps. The child skips. The child walks.

Music cheers the mind. It refines the mind. It purifies and elevates the mind.

The air teems with life. The earth teems with life. The water teems with life.

NOTE.—The parts of the compound subject or predicate, when more than two, should be separated by a comma; as, *The animals turned, looked, and ran away.*

XV.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are neither principal parts of a sentence, nor are they adjuncts. They are words used only to express **relation.**

Prepositions introduce phrases that are generally used as adjuncts; as, *A man of honesty;* equivalent to *An honest man. He went to school,* in which the phrase *to school* answers to the question *Where?* and is therefore equivalent to an adverb of place. *Good for food,* in which the phrase *for food* limits the adjective *good.*

Such phrases are generally called **prepositional phrases.**

The noun or pronoun following a preposition is called its **object,** and the preposition always expresses the relation, between its object and the word to which the prepositional phrase is an adjunct. Thus, in the above examples, *of* expresses the relation between *man* and *honesty; to,* between *went* and *school;* and *for,* between *good* and *food.*

The following are the principal simple prepositions:—*Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid* or *amidst, among* or *amongst, around, at, athwart;—before, behind, below, beneath, beside* or *besides, between* or *betwixt, beyond, by;—concerning;—down, during;—except, excepting;—for, from; in, into;—notwithstanding;—of, off, on, over, over-thwart;—past;—round;—since;—through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward* or *towards;—under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon;—with, within, without.*

The words in the preceding list are generally prepositions; but when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation, they are adverbs. *For,* when it signifies *because,* is a conjunction; *without,* when used for *unless,* and *notwithstanding,* when placed before a nominative, are usually referred to the class of conjunctions also.

Two or more words are sometimes used as a compound preposition, being combined so as to express a single relation. The following are examples: *As to, as for, according to, because of, out of, from out, from among, from between, over against.*

Exercise.

Insert the required prepositions in the following sentences:—

Plead ——— the innocent. Keep ——— bounds. He gave an account ——— the affair. The man fell ——— the hatchway. They marched ——— the enemy. Contend not ——— trifles. He found himself ——— two fires. Feel kindly ——— all. Many fail ——— grasping ——— things ——— their reach. The book lay ——— him ——— the table. The squirrel ran ——— the tree and ——— the branches, jumping ——— one ——— the other ——— great rapidity.

XVI.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no relation to any other words in a sentence. They are neither adjuncts nor principal parts, being entirely independent. Properly considered, therefore, the interjection is not a part of speech, or a *part of a sentence.*

A noun or a pronoun is sometimes independent, with or without an interjection; that is, it is neither a subject nor the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

When a pronoun is thus used, it should have the form of the nominative case; as, "O *Thou* who rulest the heavens and the earth."

The following are the principal interjections, arranged according to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate:—

1. **Joy;** *eigh! hey! io!*—2. **Sorrow;** *oh! ah! alas! alack! welladay!*—3. **Wonder;** *heigh! ha! strange!*—4. **Wishing or earnestness;** *O!*—5. **Pain;** *oh! ah! eh!*—6. **Contempt;** *pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut!*—7. **Aversion;** *foh! fie! off! begone! avaunt!*—8. **Calling aloud;** *ho! soho! hollo!*—9. **Exultation;** *aha! huzza! heyday! hurrah!*—10. **Laughter;** *ha, ha, ha.*—11. **Salutation;** *welcome! hail! all hail!*—12. **Calling to attention;** *lo! behold! look! see! hark!*—13. **Calling to silence;** *hush! hist! mum!*—14. **Surprise;** *oh! ha! hah! what!*—15. **Languor;** *heigh-ho!*—16. **Stopping;** *avast! whoa!*

Exercise.

Analyze and parse the following exclamatory sentences according to the preceding examples:—

O Liberty! how many crimes have been committed in thy name! Hark! the trumpet sounds! Alas! how we have been betrayed! Fie! you should be ashamed of your conduct! Pshaw! this is contemptible! O, that I could have been near him at that time! Avaunt! and quit my sight! Behold! what a beautiful sight is there! Heigh-ho! I am very tired!

Questions for Review.

How many participles has the English verb? What are they? Define each? How is each formed? How many and what participles has a verb in the active form? In the passive form?

Into what classes may adverbs be reduced? Define each. Give examples of each class. What are conjunctive adverbs? Give examples. What modifications have adverbs? Give examples of adverbial comparison.

Into what classes are conjunctions divided? Define each. Name the principal conjunctions of each class.

What is the office of prepositions in a sentence? What do they introduce? How are prepositional phrases used? What is the object of a preposition? What relation does a preposition show? Name the principal prepositions. Are they always employed as such? Give examples.

How are interjections used? What other part of speech is sometimes independent? What form must it have?

PART III.

SYNTAX.

I. DEFINITIONS AND RULES.

That part of grammar which teaches how to put words together properly so as to form sentences, is called **Syntax.**

This word is derived from two Greek words,—*syn*, meaning *together*, and *taxis*, *arrangement*. It is equivalent in meaning to *synthesis*, or *construction*, which is the reverse of *analysis*. It is necessary, in order to understand the true meaning of language, and to be able to use it correctly, to be familiar with both analysis and synthesis.

In order to be skilled in syntax, or the construction of sentences, we must know how the words are related to each other in expressing some particular thought. For example, if the words *John* and *book* are to be joined, and we know that they are to denote that the book belongs to John, we say *John's book*. This is the relation of property. If we are to join the words *the teacher*, *he*, and *love* together, to make a sentence, we must know the relations. Thus, suppose *the teacher* is the subject of the action expressed by *love*, and *he* is the object of the action; then the sentence must be, *The teacher loves him*, giving to the verb and pronoun their proper forms according to the relations. But suppose *he* is to be the subject, and *the teacher* the object; then the sentence would be *He loves the teacher*. This, as will be seen, requires a different *arrangement* of the words, as well as a different inflection of the pronoun. Usually the subject goes before the verb, and the object comes after it.

When a word standing in a certain relation to another word is required, on that account, to undergo some inflection or modification, it is said to be *governed* by the other word. Thus, in the above, *John*, standing as the possessor of *book*, was changed to *John's*; and *he*, when used as the object of the verb, was required to assume the objective form, *him*. In the former case, *John's* is said to be governed by *book*, and *him* by *loves*.

Again, it would not do to say *Birds flies*, because the form of the verb is *singular*, while the subject is *plural;* and the two must agree. Hence the expression should be *Birds fly*. This is what is meant by *agreement*.

Hence the following definitions: —

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement of words in sentences.

The **relation** of words, is their dependence, or connection, according to the sense.

The **agreement** of words, is their similarity in person, number, gender, case, mood, tense, or form.

The **government** of words, is that power which one word has over another, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The **arrangement** of words, is their relative place or position, in a sentence.

The **Rules of Syntax** are designed to guide in the application of the principles of grammar to the construction of sentences.

In the exercises already given, many of these principles have been applied, but without formal rule.

Analysis and synthesis, or construction, should go together. Hence, as in the preceding exercises, both are given, the analysis illustrating and facilitating the work of construction and composition. Besides, it will be found that pupils trained to analyze sentences, becoming in this way familiar with their structure, and the relation of their parts, will have a clearer and fuller comprehension of language, as well as a more correct style in using it.

As the rules afford practical directions, a new class of exercises is here introduced,—the correction of improper expressions, or **false syntax,** as usually called. In this work, these are, of course, only of a rudimentary character.

Under the following twenty-six rules, and their subordinate rules and observations, are included the principles requisite to guide the pupil in the **analysis, parsing, construction,** and **correction** of sentences.

II.—RELATION.

RULE I.—ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit; as, "At *a* little distance from *the* ruins of *the* abbey, stands *an* aged elm."

Subordinate Rules.

1. The indefinite article should be *a* before the sound of a consonant, and *an* before the sound of a vowel.

Exc.—When the accent is not on the first syllable, *an* sometimes precedes the consonant sound of *h*; as, *An* historical work. But not when *h* precedes the consonant sound of *u*: as, *A* humanitarian.

2. The article should not be repeated before nouns or adjectives referring to the same object; in other cases, it should: as, "A red and white flag,"—meaning one flag.—"A red and a white flag,"—meaning two flags.—"The works of an artist and a poet"—meaning two persons.—"The works of an artist and poet,"—meaning one person.

3. The article should not be used before the name of a mere title; as, "He received the title of duke."

Observations.

1. Articles often relate to nouns *understood*; as, "The [*river*] Thames."—"Pliny the younger" [*man*].—"The honorable [*body*] the Legislature."—"The animal [*world*] and the vegetable world."—"The Old [*Testament*] and the New Testament."

2. Articles belong *before* their nouns; but the definite article and an adjective seem sometimes to be placed after the noun to which they both relate; as, "Section *the* Fourth."—Henry *the* Eighth.

3. The definite article is sometimes prefixed to comparatives; as, "*The* oftener I see him, *the* more I respect him." In this case it has the force of an adverb.

4. When *the*, coming after a noun, is prefixed to a superlative, the terms should be transposed: as, "A claim *the* strongest,"—equivalent to *The strongest claim*. Or a noun should be supplied; as, "*The* best of men"; that is, *The best man*.

5. *An* or *a* is sometimes prefixed to an adjective of number and a plural noun, both being taken together as a *unit*; as, *A* few days.—*A* hundred sheep.

6. *A*, as prefixed to participles in *ing*, or used in composition, is a *preposition*; being, probably, the French *à*, signifying *to*, *at*, *on*, *in*, or *of*; as, "He is gone *a* hunting."—"They burst out *a* laughing."

False Syntax.

In the following sentences, correct the improper use of articles, and explain the reason of the correction :—

I have bought a hour-glass. He has sold an horse. William is a honest boy. They have formed an union. Richard has bought an history. Bring me an ewer of water. Will you eat a onion? It was a habitual practice. Mr. S. is an haughty man. This is the work of a historian. That was an humiliation.

I have a black and a white horse. (One horse.) Mr. H. is a wise and a good man. Xenophon was a hero and a sage. All esteemed the patriot and the general, Washington. The poet and painter must be men of genius.

He was named a king. She received the title of a duchess. The chief magistrate is styled a governor. The teacher receives sometimes the name of a master.

Parsing.

Parse the articles in the following sentences, as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—"A good book is the best of friends."

A is the indefinite article, and relates to the noun *book*, according to the rule,—Articles relate to the nouns which they limit.

The is the definite article, and relates to the noun *friend*, understood, according to the rule, etc.

A clear conscience is the surest source of happiness. She was reading an historical novel. He set the machine a going. Richard the First was a great soldier. Pompey the Great came to a sad end. The more you learn the wiser you will grow. Many a rich man has become a pauper. He had a flock of a hundred sheep. In a few days all will be over. It was a plan the best I ever knew. The virtuous alone are happy.

RULE II.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns; as, "He is a *wise man*, though *he* is *young*."

Subordinate Rules.

1. When the adjective has a singular and a plural form, it must be made to agree with the noun to which it relates; as, *That man*, *those men*.

2. The expression *each other* should be applied to *two* objects; *one another*, to more than two.

3. The *comparative* degree should be used only in reference to two persons or things; but the *superlative* compares one or more with all others of the same class, whether few or many; as, "Edward is *taller* than James. He is the *tallest* of my pupils."

4. The adjectives *either* and *neither* relate to two things. When more are referred to, use *any* and *none:* as, *Any* of the three; not *Either* of the three.

5. Avoid the vulgarism, *them* for *those;* as, Give me *them* books.

6. Be careful not to use an adjective for an adverb; as, He went *quick*, for *quickly.*—I feel *good*, for *well.*—An *awful* bad headache, for A *very* bad headache.

7. Avoid double comparatives and superlatives; as, A *more healthier* place.—"The *most unkindest* cut."

8. When the adjective is plural, the noun should be so too; as, Twenty *feet*,—not twenty *foot*. Except in some peculiar expressions; as, Twenty *sail* of vessels.

Observations.

1. The adjective, when it is an attribute, generally follows the predicate verb; as, "I am *glad* that the door is made *wide*."

2. An adjective sometimes relates to a phrase or a *sentence* which is substituted for a noun; as, "*That he should refuse*, is not *strange*."

3. An adjective preceded by the definite article is often used to denote a class; as, "*The good* must merit God's peculiar care."—"*The good* that I would I do not."

4. An adjective preceded by a preposition is sometimes used for an adverb; as, "In particular," that is, *in a particular manner*, or *particularly*.

5. A singular adjective is sometimes used before a plural noun and adjective taken together as a unit; as, "*One* hundred men."—"*Every* six weeks."

6. To denote plurality, the adjective *many* may, in like manner, precede *an* or *a*, with a singular noun; as,

"Full *many* a flower is born to blush unseen."—*Gray.*

False Syntax.

Correct the improper use of adjectives in the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed.

I do not like these sort of people. Charles is brighter than any of the pupils. These three boys were striking each other. Bring them

books to me. Do not walk so slow. The plank was twenty foot long. John and his sister Mary were very fond of one another. Peter is an awful bad writer. Mr. J. is a shocking bad man. William is the most industrious of all his schoolmates. Either of those four pupils can be trusted. He can walk more than twenty mile a day. How beautiful she writes! The latter of those three pictures is the prettier; but neither of them pleases me. These kind of fishes are hard to catch. They are the most liveliest creatures you ever saw. A more handsomer dress you never saw. What a terrible bad cold you have! Try to get well as quick as you can. Be careful like I am.

Parsing.

Parse the adjectives in the following sentences, as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—"Every intelligent person must be familiar with that."

Every is a pronominal adjective, relating to the noun *person*, according to the rule,—Adjectives relate to nouns and pronouns.

Intelligent is a common adjective, relating to person, according to the rule, etc.

Familiar is a common adjective, used as an attribute, and relating to the subject *person*, according to the rule, etc.

That is a pronominal adjective representing a noun understood, in the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, being the object of the preposition *with*.

Those pencils are all sharp. This is true, but that is false. Both of those pupils are meritorious. A word to the wise is sufficient. The mountains looked blue. Give to the poor, not to the rich. A detachment of one thousand men proceeded in advance. In general, this rule is applicable. Many a youth has been ruined by bad company. The light burned dim. Pupils must sit still, and be attentive. Many are called, but few chosen. She looks beautiful.

RULE III.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs; as, "Conscience, *very often* disregarded, *finally* becomes *wholly* inert."

Subordinate Rules.

1. Place the adverb, or adverbial phrase, as near as possible to the word to which it relates. The word *only* is very often misplaced: as, "He only wished to defend himself;" instead of, He wished only to defend himself.

2. Be careful not to use an adverb for an adjective attribute: as, "The air feels *coldly*;" instead of *cold*.

When the word expresses a quality asserted of the subject, the adjective is required: as, "She looked beautiful;" that is, she *was beautiful* in her appearance. But in "The king looked *coldly* upon him," *coldly* shows *how* the king looked.

3. Do not use *no* for *not*: as, "I cannot tell whether it is true or *no*;" instead of *not*.

4. Do not use two negatives in the same proposition; as, "I could *not* wait *no* longer." This would imply that he could wait longer.

5. Do not use the adverb *but* (equivalent to *only*) in a negative proposition: as, "He hath *not* grieved *but* in part." Say, He hath grieved me but in part.

Observations.

1. *No* as an adverb of degree relates to comparatives; as, *No* greater, —*no* sooner. When prefixed to a noun, *no* becomes an adjective; as, *No* person believes it.

2. The words *yes* and *no*, used in answering questions, are not adverbs, being equivalent to entire propositions. They are to be regarded as *independent*. The same is true of the word *amen*.

3. An adverb is often used to modify a phrase, used as an adjective or adverb; as, "He is *greatly* in fault."—"He swum *nearly* across the stream."

4. The word *even* is sometimes an adverb; but it may be placed before any word to give it emphasis; as, "*Even* I was condemned."

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and give the reason for the correction.

Tell me whether you will do it, or no. Why do you not say nothing? This piece of work looks very finely. The wind blew keenly. He only came to do mischief. He has not accomplished but a very little. Nothing can justify ever an untruth. The bird flies very swift. I cannot do no more. Neither he nor no one else can do that. The man only discharged his duty. He read only the book; he did not tear it. He only read the book, not the notice of it. The ship is soon expected to sail. Every pupil cannot read well. He went direct to the place. The two ladies were nearly dressed alike. Be not dishonest, nor take advantage of no one. He was not able to pay the debt but in part.

Parsing.

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences, as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—"He went away very early."

Away is an adverb, relating to the verb *went;* according to the rule, Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, etc.

Very is an adverb of degree, and relates to the adverb *early;* according to the rule, Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, etc.

Early is an adverb of time, and relates to the verb *went;* according to the rule, etc.

Do you feel well? Yes. Call upon me early to-morrow. Whither shall I go for comfort? How sad she seems to-day! Are you very ill? No. Can you go no higher? He has read nearly through the book? He spent even his friend's money. He even abused the man. Could you come no sooner? He is injured but to a small extent. The pupil behaved very ill. There once occurred a dreadful storm. Here comes the very same person. She treated even me most abusively.

RULE IV.—PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions; as, "Elizabeth's tutor at one time *paying* her a visit, found her *employed* in *reading* Plato."—*Hume.*

Subordinate Rules.

1. Do not use a preposition between a participle and its object: as, "By preaching repentance"; not, By preaching of repentance.

2. When the participle has been changed to a noun, be careful to insert a preposition to govern the object: as, "The worshiping *of* idols is sinful"; not, The worshiping idols.

3. Place the participle so that it may have a clear reference to the word to which it relates; as "By yielding to temptation, trouble is incurred." This would imply that it is the *trouble* that yields to temptation. Say rather: By *yielding* to temptation, we *incur* trouble. Or, as some would allow: By our yielding to temptation trouble is incurred.

4. Do not use the *preterit* for the *perfect participle*, nor the perfect participle for the preterit: as, "I should have *went* away"; instead of *gone.*—"He *done* it very well." These are gross vulgarisms.

5. Do not use the participle for a verb in the infinitive mood; as, "He neglected *doing* his duty." Say *to do.*

Observations.

1. In such expressions as, "*Granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it?" the participle and the phrase which it introduces is independent. Sometimes, however, a noun or a pronoun understood may be supplied.

2. There are several intransitive verbs after which the imperfect participle may be used as an attribute; as, "Continue *following* the Lord your God."—1 *Sam.*, xii., 14.

3. The participle introducing a phrase is sometimes made the subject of a verb; as, "Writing letters was his daily occupation." Usually it is better to use the infinitive mood for the participle in this case.

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and give the reason for the correction.

She wastes her time in reading of novels. He could not have wrote the letter. The learning anything well requires application. I seen him do it myself. By studying faithfully knowledge is acquired. John could not have went to school. Charles begun well, but ended badly. We saw the lady while crossing the street. By reading good books his mind was improved. William neglected going on the errand. Relieving the distressed should be a pleasure. I intended returning the book. I never desired having such a friend.

Parsing.

Parse the participles in the following sentences, as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—"On visiting her I found her engaged."

Visiting is an imperfect participle, from the regular active verb *visit*. It is used as a verb and a noun, being governed by the preposition *on*; according to the rule, Participles relate, etc.

Engaged is a perfect participle, from the passive verb *be engaged*. It is used as a verb and an adjective, relating to the pronoun *her*; according to the rule, etc.

She spends her time in doing good. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost. The house having been built was soon occupied. Being accused of crime he was arrested. After having acquired great wealth he became poor. Defeated in all his plans, he became hopeless. Admitting the truth of this, what then? They continued asking him about it. Generally speaking, that is correct. The child was found straying in the Park. Mr. P. having been satisfied, they sat down. Teaching poor children was her constant employment. Walking rapidly is good exercise.

RULE V.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions show the relations of things; as, "The house was founded *on* a rock."

Subordinate Rules.

1. Do not separate the preposition from its object unnecessarily; as, "*Whom* was the letter directed *to?*" Say, *To whom*, etc.

2. Be careful to employ such prepositions as will correctly express the meaning intended: as, "He arrived *at* New York"; not *in* New York.—"I reside *in* Boston"; not *at* Boston.

3. The phrase introduced by a preposition (prepositional phrase) should be placed as near as possible to the word which it modifies: as, "I saw what he had done in an instant." This is ambiguous; it should be, I saw in an instant what he had done.

4. When motion to a place is denoted, *into* should be used, not *in;* when motion or rest in a place is signified, *in* should be used, not *into;* as, "He went *into* the house, and staid *in* it."

5. Two separate prepositions have sometimes a joint reference to the same noun; as, "He boasted *of*, and contended *for*, the privilege." This construction is formal, and scarcely allowable, except in the law style. It is better to say, "He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it."

6. A sentence is often rendered obscure or faulty by the improper insertion or omission of a preposition; as, "I admit *of* what you say." Omit *of*.—"What use is it?" Say, Of what use is it.

7. Use *between* with reference to two objects; *among*, with reference to several: as, "The estate was divided between his two sons, and the elder divided his share among his three sisters."

Observations.

1. Two prepositions sometimes come together, so that they ought not to be separated in parsing; as, "Lambeth is *over against* Westminster Abbey."

2. When a prepositional phrase is independent, there is no antecedent term of relation. When the antecedent term can be supplied, the phrase is not independent; as, "*In* a word, it would entirely defeat my purpose."

3. A preposition is frequently understood: as, "He walked twenty miles that day"; that is, *through* twenty miles *on* that day.—"Give me a book"; that is, *to* me.—"He is like his brother"; that is, *to* his brother.

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and give the reason for the correction.

Whom was this meant for? They all perished for thirst. I don't see anything into this. The cat jumped on the table. The child was of six years old. How much did his father send him to town with? He lives at Mulberry Street in No. 15. He asked of the pupil a question. They plunged in the river. He rode several miles, driving a herd of oxen on horseback. I have no occasion of his services. Mr. S. divided his property between his four sons. The lamb followed on after its mother. He plunged into, and swam across, the river. Which of these books can I find that passage in? He put a basket of apples in his wagon without a cover. That remark is not worthy your notice. He quarreled with, and disgusted all his friends. Always strive to profit from good advice.

Parsing.

Parse the prepositions in the preceding sentences, according to the example.

EXAMPLE.—"The boy stood on the burning deck."

On is a preposition, showing the relation between the verb *stood* and the noun *deck*; according to the rule, Prepositions show the relation of things.

Parse the prepositions in the following:—

He was absent a whole year. He was mistaken as to the time of the affair. In truth, it was a dreadful calamity. This is, of a truth, that prophet. Come out from among those wicked men. He came out of his house. William is very like his father. Give the new scholar a slate. Next summer she will go to Europe.

III.—AGREEMENT.

RULE VI. — NOMINATIVES.

A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case: as, "I know *thou* sayst it: says thy *life* the same?"

Subordinate Rule.

The subject or nominative is generally placed before the verb; but in the following cases it is placed after it, or after the first auxiliary:—

1. When a question is asked without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, "Shall *mortals* be implacable?"—"What art *thou* doing?"

2. When the verb is in the imperative mood; as, "*Go thou.*"

3. When an earnest wish, or other strong feeling, is expressed; as, "May *she* be happy!"—"How were *we* struck!"—*Young.*

4. When a supposition is made without a conjunction; as, "Were *it* true, it would not injure us."

5. When *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*, precedes the verb; as, "This was his fear; *nor was* his apprehension groundless."

6. When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it; as, "Here am *I.*" —"Narrow is the *way.*"—"Silver and gold have *I* none."—*Bible.*

7. When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatic; as, "*Echo* the mountains round."—*Thompson.*

8. When the verbs *say*, *think*, *reply*, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue; as, "'Son of affliction,' said *Omar*, 'who art thou?' 'My name,' replied the *stranger*, 'is Hassan.'"—*Johnson.*

9. When the adverb *there* precedes the verb; as, "There lived a *man.*"—*Montgomery.* "There needs no *proof* of this."

False Syntax.

Correct the errors in the following, and explain.

I know them are entirely mistaken. I and her are going to take a walk. She and me went to school together. You and us are very fortunate. Them who do right shall be rewarded. That is the boy whom we think did the mischief. You know as well as me what was done. Who opened the door? Me. My brother is older than me. Whom do you suppose did it? Art not thee and him related?

Parsing.

After correcting the above, parse every noun and pronoun in each of the sentences.

RULE VII.—APPOSITION.

A noun or a personal pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case; as, "Columbus, the *discoverer* of America, was carried in chains to Spain."

OBS.—Apposition is the addition of a word used in the same construction, in order to explain a preceding word in the sentence. The construction being the same, of course the case must be the same.

Subordinate Rules.

1. When the explanatory term is a single word, or when it forms with the principal term, only a single expression or name, it should not be separated by a comma; in other cases the comma should be used; as, "The poet *Milton* wrote 'Paradise Lost.'"—"Pope, the *translator* of Homer, was a great poet."—"I *myself* was there."—"His praise, *ye* brooks, attune."

2. When two or more nouns of the *possessive* case are put in apposition, the possessive termination added to one, denotes the case of both or all; as, "His *brother Philip's* wife."—"*John* the *Baptist's* head."—"At my *friend Johnson's*, the *bookseller*." By a repetition of the possessive sign, a distinct governing noun is implied, and the apposition is destroyed.

Observations.

1. This rule involves a variety of forms of expression, as may be seen by the following examples: "I, thy *schoolmaster*, have made thee profit."—*Shak.* "I, even *I*, am he."—*Isaiah*, xliii. "I am the Lord, your *Holy One*, the *Creator* of Israel, your *King*."—*Id.* "They shall every *man* turn to his own people."—*Id.* "*It* is always profitable *to know our own faults and infirmities*." "Righteousness and peace have kissed *each* other."—*Psalms.* "That ye love *one* an other."—*New Test.* "Be ye helpers *one* of another."—*Id.* "To make him *king*."—*Id.* "With modesty thy *guide*."—*Pope.*

2. The explanatory word is sometimes *placed first*, especially among the poets; as,

> "From bright'ning fields of ether fair disclos'd,
> *Child* of the sun, refulgent *Summer* comes."—*Thomson.*

3. Terms in apposition are often connected by the expression *that is;* as, "We found a *bee-tree*, that is, a *tree*," etc.

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule VII. in the following, and punctuate the sentence properly.

I have heard from my cousin she that was here last week. I saw your friend he that I met with you. Only my sister was there her that you saw yesterday. I went with John and William they who were sent on an errand. The boys were not to blame, that is, them who went with me. I saw at Smith's your sister's Mary's photograph.

Parsing.

Parse all the nouns and pronouns in apposition in the above sentences.

RULE VIII.—VERB AND SUBJECT.

A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number: as, "The bird *flies;* the birds *fly*."

Observations.

1. The *infinitive mood*, a *phrase*, or a *sentence*, is sometimes the subject to a verb: a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person, singular; as, "*To lie* is base."—"*To see the sun* is pleasant."—"*That you have violated the law*, is evident."

2. The nominative to a verb in the imperative mood is generally *omitted;* as, "Guide [*thou*] my lonely way." With the verb in all the other personal tenses, the nominative must be expressed, except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction; as, "They bud, blow, wither, fall, and die."

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule VIII. in the following sentences.

You was kindly received. Appearances is often deceptive. Thou sees the difficulty in which I am placed. What does all my exertions avail? He don't know what it is. A soft answer turn away wrath. Circumstances alters cases. He dare not do as he threaten. The correctness of these rules are doubtful. Six months' interest are due. There was many reasons for taking that course.

Parsing.

Parse each subject noun or pronoun and each predicate verb in the above sentences, according to the example.

EXAMPLE.—"Revenge dwells in little minds."

Revenge is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case, being the subject of the verb *dwells;* according to the rule, A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

Dwells is a verb, redundant in form, and neuter in signification, denoting a state of being; it is found in the indicative mood and present tense, and agrees with its subject *revenge* in the third person and singular number; according to the rule, A finite verb must agree with its subject or nominative in person and number.

RULE IX.—COLLECTIVE NOMINATIVE.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number; as, "My *people do* not *consider*." But when it conveys the idea of unity the verb must be singular; as, "The *army was* defeated."—"The *armies were* defeated."

OBS.—Whether the idea conveyed is that of plurality or unity, depends upon the meaning of the verb; that is, the nature of the assertion. If it refers to the individuals separately, plurality is conveyed, because there are more than one; if to the whole collectively, unity is expressed, when there is but one body referred to. Thus, in the first example, the *people consider* as individuals, not as a whole, to consider being a personal act; but, in the second example, the *army* as a whole was defeated, not the individuals composing it.

False Syntax and Parsing.

Correct the violations of Rule IX. in the following, and parse each collective noun.

[Read carefully the observation under the rule.]

A fleet of fifty vessels were seen approaching. A large part of the army was drowned. Have the board of commissioners adjourned? Congress consist of the senate and house of representatives. The committee has carefully considered the matter. The people was duly notified. The public is respectfully informed. The entire regiment is running from the enemy. The audience was much pleased. A large crowd of people was present. The jury have been impaneled, but has not agreed. A pair consist of two. The happy pair has gone to Boston. One-half of my oranges is spoiled.

RULE X.—TWO OR MORE NOMINATIVES.

When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number; as, "Temperance and exercise preserve health."

OBS.—The conjunction is sometimes *understood;* as, "Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."

Subordinate Rules.

1. When the nouns connected are descriptive of one and the *same thing*, they are in *apposition*, and do not require a plural verb; as, "This philosopher and poet *was* banished from his country."

2. When the same nominative is *repeated*, the words are in *apposition*, and do not require a plural verb; as,

"Love, and *love* only, *is* the loan for love."—*Young.*

3. When the verb *separates* its nominatives, it agrees with that which precedes it, and is understood to the rest; as,

———"Forth in the pleasing spring
Thy beauty *walks*, thy tenderness, and love."—*Thomson.*

4. When two subjects are connected, one of which is taken affirmatively, and the other negatively, they belong to different propositions; and the verb or pronoun must agree with the *affirmative* subject, and be understood to the other; as, "Diligent *industry*, and not mean savings, *produces* honorable competence."

5. So also when subjects are connected by *as well as*, *but*, or *save*; as, "*Cæsar*, as well as Cicero, *was admired* for *his* eloquence."—"*Nothing* but wailings *was heard*."—"*None* but thou *can* aid us."—"No mortal *man*, save he, *had* e'er *survived*."—*Scott.*

6. When the subjects are severally preceded by the adjective *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and require a verb and pronoun in the singular number; as,

"And every sense, and every heart, *is* joy."—*Thomson.*
"Each beast, each insect, happy in *its* own."—*Pope.*

7. Two or more distinct subject *phrases* connected by *and*, require a plural verb; as, "*To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world*, and *to be wise in the sight of our Creator*, are three things so very different as rarely to coincide."—*Blair.*

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule X. and its subordinate rules in the following sentences, and parse each predicate verb.

Industry and frugality leads to wealth. Wealth, honor, and happiness forsakes the indolent. My flesh and my heart faileth. In all his works there is sprightliness and vigor. My love and esteem toward thee remains unaltered. James, and also his brother, have left school. Study, and not play, engage his mind. Every man, every woman, and every child present were looking on. That brilliant scholar and teacher have died. To do good and to shun evil always brings happiness. No

wife, no mother, no child were there to soothe his pain. Virtue, and virtue alone, are able to satisfy the heart. Every tree and every shrub now put forth their buds.

RULE XI.—SINGULAR NOMINATIVES.

When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number; as, "Fear *or* jealousy *affects* him."

Subordinate Rules.

1. When a verb has nominatives of *different persons* or *numbers*, connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with that which is placed next to it, and be understood to the rest in the person and number required; as, "Neither he nor his brothers *were* there."—"Neither you nor I *am* concerned."

2. But when the nominatives require *different forms* of the verb, it is, in general, more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connection with each of them; as, "Either thou *art* to blame, or I *am*."—"Neither *were* their numbers, nor *was* their destination, known."

3. The speaker should generally mention himself last; as, "Thou or *I* must go."—"He then addressed his discourse to my father and *me*." But in confessing a fault he may assume the first place; as, "*I* and Robert did it."

4. Two or more distinct subject *phrases* connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb; as, "*That a drunkard should be poor*, or *that a fop should be ignorant*, is not strange."

False Syntax.

Correct the violation of Rule XI. and its subordinate rules in the following, and parse each predicate verb.

Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake. Either ability or inclination were wanting. Our happiness or our misery mainly depend upon ourselves. Either John or his brother have done this. Neither poverty nor riches was the cause of his discontent. Neither I nor my father are able to do it. Neither John nor I were to blame. Neither the man nor his sons has been here. Either he or I are mistaken. Either I or she are entitled to the prize. Neither thou nor I art to blame. To have brilliant talents, or to amass great riches, render most persons very proud. Vanity, ambition, or sensuality lead many to ruin. No pains nor cost were spared in her education.

RULE XII.—VERBS CONNECTED.

When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed; as, "He himself *held* the plough, *sowed* the grain, and *attended* the reapers."—"She *was* proud, but she *is* now humble."

Observations.

1. We may, without repeating the nominative, connect the present, the perfect, and the first-future tense of the indicative mood; the corresponding tenses of the indicative and potential moods; the affirmative and the negative form; or the simple and the compound form. But the simple verb must, in general, be placed first; as,

"What nothing earthly *gives* or *can destroy*."—*Pope.*

"Some *are*, and *must be*, greater than the rest."—*Id.*

2. Those parts which are *common* to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest; as, "Every sincere endeavor to amend shall be assisted, [*shall be*] accepted, and [*shall be*] rewarded."—"Honorably do the best you can" [*do*].—"He thought as I did" [*think*].—"You have seen it, but I have not" [*seen it*].—"If you will go, I will" [*go*].

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule XII. in the following, and parse each predicate verb.

Does he not waste his time and neglects his lessons? He was elected to the office, but would not serve. The pupil has been idle, and will not improve. He was told to make haste, and should have been there in time. He was sick, and could not do it. William can learn his lesson, but will not. They would neither go in themselves, nor suffered others to enter. I shall fail, and hence must not undertake it.

RULE XIII.—SUBJECT AND ATTRIBUTE.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case *after* as *before* them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as, "*He* was my *friend*."—"The *child* was named *John*."—"*It* is *I*."

OBS. 1.—This rule may be more simply stated, thus: The attribute agrees in case with the subject.

OBS. 2.—The neuter verb *be* that connects the subject and the attribute, is sometimes called the *copula*, because it couples, or joins together these two parts of the sentence.

OBS. 3.—The verb *be* generally affirms only the connection between the subject and the attribute. When the latter is a noun, it may express—1. *Class;* as, "Cain was a *murderer.*" 2. *Identity;* as, "Cain was *the* murderer of Abel." 3. *Name;* as, "The child was called *John.*"

OBS. 4.—Class, identity, name, or quality, may be attributed to the subject in various ways; as, 1. By affirming directly a connection, as in the preceding examples. 2. By affirming it to belong to the subject, in connection with a particular act or state of being; as, "She *looked* a goddess, and she *walked* a queen."—"The sun *stood* still." 3. By affirming a connection, but not its previous existence; as, "He *has become* a scholar." 4. By affirming not only the connection, but the *cause* or *manner* by which it was established; as, "He *was elected* President."—"The twig *has grown* a tree."

OBS. 5.—In interrogative sentences, the terms are usually transposed, or both are placed after the verb; as, "*What* art *thou?*"—"Art *thou he?*"

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule XIII. in the following sentences.

We did not know that it was him. It could not have been her. It is not me that he is angry with. They believed it to be I. If I had been him, I should have done the same. I understood it to be he. Let him be whom he may. It was me who wrote the letter. Whom do they say that I am. Who do they think him to be? It is not him whom you thought it was.

Parsing.

Parse each of the attributes in the above sentences, as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—"He was elected President."

President is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the nominative case, agreeing with the subject *he;* according to the rule, Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, etc.

RULE XIV.—PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender; as, "*I, who* am your friend, will aid you."

OBS.—While every pronoun must represent some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, it is only the relative pronoun that necessarily has an *antecedent* (word *going before*). The pronoun must always agree with the noun or pronoun which it represents, whether it be an antecedent or not. The antecedent of a relative pronoun is always in the same sentence; but it is in the principal clause, while the relative is in the dependent clause.

Subordinate Rules.

1. *Who* is applied only to persons, and *which* to brute animals, or inanimate things. *That* may be used to represent either.

2. *That* is to be preferred in the following cases:—

1. After a superlative; as, "It is the best that I can do."

2. After the adjective *same;* as, "This is the same lesson that we had yesterday."

3. After *who* as an antecedent; as, "Who that perseveres will not succeed?"

4. When both persons and things are referred to; as, "The people and things that he has studied have made him wise."

5. After the indefinite pronoun *it;* as, "*It* was *I that* did it."

3. Do not use *what* for *that;* as, "I do not know but *what* I am to blame."

4. Place the relative pronoun as near as possible to the antecedent.

Observations.

1. A pronoun sometimes represents a *phrase* or *sentence*, or a *quality* expressed before by an adjective. In this case, the pronoun is always in the third person, singular, neuter; as, "*She is very handsome;* and she has the misfortune to know *it.*"

2. The pronoun *it* is often used indefinitely; as, "It rains."—"It is stormy." It is also very often used to represent a phrase or a clause coming after a verb; as, "*It* is impossible *to please every one.*" In this case the phrase or clause is in apposition with *it*, being used to explain it.

3. In familiar language, the relative in the objective case is frequently *understood:* as, "Here is the letter [*which*] I received." The omission of the relative in the nominative case is inelegant; as, "This is the worst thing [*that*] could happen."

4. *As* is sometimes equivalent to a relative; as, "Avoid such *as* are vicious."

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule XIV. in the following sentences, and parse all the pronouns.

Every one must judge of their own feelings. Each of us had as much as we desired. Let every one of you attend to your own business. Those which are ready may come forward. I have done everything what you ordered. It was he who spoke. John committed the same mistake which he made before. The lion who seemed so fierce was brought from Africa. This is the worst fault which he could have committed. I who is your father should be obeyed. Come to me for advice who are your friend. He has learned much from the people and customs which he has observed. Alexander was the greatest conqueror whom the world ever saw. He requires no assistance that can take care of himself. They should have no aid from others who are idle and careless. Who which is not blind could fail to see this? His influence was such as are rarely seen.

RULE XV.—COLLECTIVE ANTECEDENT.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it, in the plural number; as, "The *council* disagreed in *their* sentiments." But when it conveys the idea of unity, the pronoun must be singular; as, "The *nation* will enforce *its* laws."

[See observation under Rule IX.]

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule XV. in the following sentences, and parse each pronoun and antecedent.

The people will not relinquish its rights. The party disagreed in its views. The company have expelled two of their members. The com-

mittee have made their report. The jury will be confined until it agrees on a verdict. The council was unanimous in its opinions. Where will the society hold their meetings? The court in their wisdom have decided otherwise. The army continued their retreat. The public will not give up its prejudices. The new board of directors have elected their officers. The parliament will take up the matter at their next session. The audience showed its approbation by applause.

RULE XVI.—CONNECTED ANTECEDENTS.

When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number; as, "*James and John* will favor us with *their* company."

Subordinate Rule.

When the antecedents are of different persons, use the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as, "You and John have not recited your lessons."—"You, William, and I must make our excuses"

[See the subordinate rules under Rule X., most of which are applicable to the pronoun as well as to the verb.]

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and parse the pronouns and their antecedents.

Truth and honesty cannot fail of its reward. Cherish love and unity: it is the life of society. You and your playmates should learn their lessons. He and I respect their teacher. James, and also his brother, have recited their lessons. Sarah, and not Charlotte, have lost their book. Every plant, every flower, and every insect, show the wisdom of their Creator. You, your brother, and I must attend to their work.

RULE XVII.—CONNECTED ANTECEDENTS.

When a pronoun has two or more *singular* antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number; as, "*James or John* will favor us with *his* company."

Subordinate Rule.

When antecedents of different persons, numbers, or genders, are connected by *or* or *nor*, they cannot with strict propriety be represented by a pronoun that is not applicable to each of them.

OBS.—When a pronoun is used to represent antecedents of different genders, the masculine should be used rather than the feminine; as, "Neither Sarah nor James will give up his place." The use of "his or her" is awkward. The difficulty can be avoided only by a different construction: "Sarah will not give up her place, nor James his."

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and parse the pronouns and their antecedents.

Can justice or truth change their nature? One or the other must relinquish their claim. John or William will favor us with their company. Neither the watch nor the chain was ever restored to their owner. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow their neck to the yoke. Have you seen my ox or my cow? They have strayed from the pasture. Neither the boy nor the girl seemed to know their lessons.

IV.—GOVERNMENT.

RULE XVIII.—POSSESSIVES.

A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed: as,

"*Theirs* is the vanity, the learning *thine;*
Touch'd by *thy* hand, again *Rome's* glories shine."

Subordinate Rules.

1. When nouns in the possessive case are connected by a conjunction, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must always be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the governing noun, expressed or understood; as, "John and Eliza's teacher is a man of more learning than James's or William's."—"For David my servant's sake."

2. The relation of property may also be expressed by the preposition *of;* as, "The will of man,"—for "man's will." Of these forms we should adopt that which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable, and, by the use of both, avoid an unpleasant repetition of either.

Observations.

1. The apostrophe and *s* are sometimes annexed to that part of a *compound name*, which is, of itself, in the objective case; as, "The captain-of-the-guard's house."—*Bible.* "The Bard-of-Lomond's lay is done."—*Hogg.*

2. To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the *s* is sometimes *omitted*, and the apostrophe only retained; as, "For conscience' sake." —"Moses' minister."—"Felix' room."—"Achilles' wrath." In prose the full form should be used.

3. When a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case is used as an attribute, it is governed by the subject to which it relates; as, "The fault is *mine*."—"The book is *John's*."

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and parse all the nouns in the possessive case.

John's and William's father chided them for their conduct. Adam was Cain's and Abel's father. I have seen neither William nor Charles's book. Smith's and Company's store is closed. They paid a visit to the queen of England's palace. Edward the Second's death was a shocking one. Louis XIV's reign was very brilliant. Did you ever read Jack the Giant Killer's wonderful adventures? Brown and Jones's houses will be occupied by the respective owners. Socrates' sayings are recorded in Plato and Xenophon's works. Horace' poems show great genius. Queen Elizabeth mourned greatly on account of Essex' death.

RULE XIX.—OBJECT OF THE VERB.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case; as, "I found *her* assisting *him*." "Having finished the *work*, I submit *it*."

Observations.

1. An active transitive verb is often followed by the direct object of the action, and the *indirect object*, or that in respect to which the action is performed. The latter is usually governed by a preposition understood; as, "I paid [to] *him* the money."—"He asked [of] *them* a question."

2. In expressing such sentences *passively*, the object of the preposition is sometimes assumed for the nominative; as, "*He* was paid *the money*," instead of, "*The money* was paid [to] *him*." The direct object should generally be made the subject of the passive verb; but in some cases usage seems to sanction the reverse; as, "The boy was taught *grammar*," instead of, "Grammar was taught [to] the boy." In this construction, the noun following the passive still continues to be an *object of the action* expressed by the verb, and is, accordingly, in the objective case.

3. An active-transitive verb is sometimes followed by an object and an attribute agreeing with it; as, "Thy saints proclaim *thee king*." "They called the *child John*." This is the reverse of the passive construction, "The *child* was called *John*."

4. Some verbs govern only a noun of kindred meaning; as, "He *lived* a virtuous *life*."—"Joseph *dreamed* a *dream*."

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and parse all the nouns and pronouns in the objective case.

She I shall more readily forgive. Thou only have I chosen. Who shall we send on this errand? My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him. He that is idle and mischievous reprove sharply. Who should I meet but my old friend. Who do you think him to be? I, and I only, must you charge with the offense. Ye who do wrong the teacher will punish. Tell me who you mean. Let you and I avoid such company. He accosts whoever he meets.

RULE XX.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions govern the objective case; as, "Beauty dwells *in them*, and they *in her*."

Observations.

1. When nouns of *time* or *measure* are connected with verbs or adjectives, the prepositions which govern them are generally *suppressed*: as, "We rode sixty miles that day;" that is, "*through* sixty miles *on* that day."—"The wall is ten feet high;" that is, "high *to* ten feet."

2. After the adjectives *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, the preposition *to* or *unto* is generally understood; as, "It is like [*to* or *unto*] silver."—"Near [*to*] yonder copse."—"Nigh [*to*] this recess."

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and parse all the prepositions and their objects.

Let that remain a secret between you and I. I lent the book to some one, I know not who. Who did you give the message to? It rests with thou and me to decide the matter. As to you and he, the case is very different. Except him and I no one saw it.

RULE XXI.—INFINITIVES.

The preposition TO commonly governs the infinitive mood, and connects it to a finite verb or some other part of speech; as, "I desire *to learn*."—"I went *to see* my friend."—"He is anxious *to succeed*."

OBS.—The word *to*, generally used with the infinitive mood, serves to indicate the mood, and, usually, to express the relation between the verb and the word which it limits or modifies. In certain cases, *to* loses its prepositional office; as when the infinitive is the subject or the direct object of a verb. In the latter case, being the object of the verb, it cannot be the object of the preposition.

Observations.

1. When the infinitive is the object of the preposition, it may be connected with a noun; as, "He had a *desire to visit* Paris."—With an adjective; as, "We were *anxious to see* you."—With an adverb; as, "Be good *enough to inform* me."

2. The infinitive, when used as an attribute, is, with the word *to*, equivalent to an adjective or a noun: as, "This man is *to be esteemed*"; that is, He is *estimable*.—"To be good is *to be* happy"; that is, Goodness is happiness.

3. In dependent prepositions, the infinitive is often used, indirectly, as a predicate, its subject being in the objective case; as, "She desired *him to leave* the room." In this construction, the word *to* loses its prepositional character, being merely a sign of the infinitive mood.

4. The infinitive is sometimes independent; as, "*To be* candid with you, I was in fault."

Parsing.

Parse all the verbs in the infinitive mood, found in the following sentences.

Does he intend to travel? Shall I be able to do this? Is he willing to lend his book? He was anxious to reach home. William is eager to learn. He begged to be allowed to go home. To be temperate in all things is the characteristic of a wise man. To speak rashly is a great fault. It is necessary to use exercise in the open air. They wished him to depart. He was told to obey his teacher. John loved to study so much, that he scarcely took time to play. To speak plainly, I think you are wrong. She is greatly to be admired for her industry. In time to come, I will tell you.

RULE XXII.—INFINITIVES.

The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition TO; as, "If he bade thee *depart*, how darest thou *stay?*"

Subordinate Rules.

1. The preposition is always employed after the *passive* form of these verbs, and in some instances after the *active:* as, "He was heard *to* say."—"I cannot see *to* do it."—"What would dare *to* molest him who might call on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty?" —*Dr. Johnson.*

2. The auxiliary *be* of the passive infinitive is also suppressed after *feel*, *hear*, *make*, and *see;* as, "I heard the letter *read*," not, "*be read.*"

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and explain the reason of the correction.

Did you not see him to take the article? Please excuse my son's absence. I will try and do it for you. They need not to call upon her. I have heard him to mention the subject. They certainly heard the rule to be announced. Can I not make this matter be understood by you? Bid the boys to come in. They have been bidden come in already. Let no rash promises to be made. I dare to say he has not gone home yet.

Parsing.

Parse all the infinitives in the above sentences, according to the examples.

EXAMPLE 1.—"He went to see his friend."

See is an irregular, active transitive verb, its principal parts being *see, saw, seeing, seen.* It is in the infinitive mood, present tense, and is governed by the preposition *to*, which connects it to the verb *went;* according to the rule, The preposition *to* commonly governs the infinitive mood, etc.

EXAMPLE 2.—"The teacher bade him leave the room."

Leave is an irregular, active transitive verb, from *leave, left, leaving, left;* it is in the infinitive mood, present tense, and is used as the predicate of the object clause, the subject being *him.* The word *to* is omitted according to the rule, The active verbs *bid, dare*, etc.

V.—MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

RULE XXIII.—SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

An event both contingent and future should be expressed with the subjunctive mood, in the present tense; as, "If thou *forsake* him, he *will cast* thee off forever."

Subordinate Rules.

1. When the statement is merely a supposition, with indefinite time, the subjunctive, imperfect should be used; as, "If it *were* not so, I would have told you."

2. A conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mood; as, "Though he *is* poor, he is contented."

OBS.—The pupil must carefully study these three rules, and the cases to which they apply. The subjunctive mood is required only when the event or fact is *future* and *contingent*, that is, dependent upon the occurrence of some other future event. The time is indefinite, being, only relatively, present or past. The difference between the conditional statement of a *fact* and a future contingency will be obvious from these two sentences:—

If he *be* sick, I will visit him. (*Subjunctive.*)
Though he *is* sick, he does not repine. (*Indicative.*)

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of the above rules in the following, and parse all the subjunctives.

He will not be pardoned, unless he repents. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rains. Let him take heed lest he falls. If thou dost cast me off, I shall be helpless. I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well. If he was an impostor, he must have been detected. If he were accused of theft, he was not convicted. Though he be deprived of his fortune, he is not unhappy.

RULE XXIV.—INDEPENDENT CASE.

A noun or a pronoun is put in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word; as, "*He failing*, who shall meet success?"—"Your *fathers*, where are they?"

Observations.

1. The case of a noun or pronoun is independent under the following four circumstances:—

1. When with a participle it is used to express a cause, or some other related event; as, "He being young, they deceived him." This is usually called the *case absolute*.

2. When it is used to indicate simply the person addressed; as, "John, bring me a book."

3. When it is used merely for emphasis, without forming any part of the structure of the sentence; as, "*Gad*, a troop shall overcome him." "The *north* and the *south*, thou hast created them." This is a peculiar mode of expression, called *pleonasm*.

4. When it is used as a *mere exclamation;* as, "O, what *folly!*"

2. The first of these four cases (the *case absolute*) is equivalent to a dependent clause commencing with *when*, *while*, *if*, *since*, *because*, etc.: as, "I being a child, they assisted me;"—equivalent to, Because I was a child, etc.

3. A pronoun in the objective case is sometimes used independently with an interjection; as, "Ah me! how sad I am!" This is an exception to the rule.

4. When the attribute is used indefinitely, that is, without reference to any particular subject, it is independent in case; as, "To be a *poet* requires great genius."

False Syntax.

Correct the violations of Rule XXIV. in the following, and parse all the independent nouns and pronouns.

Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed. Me being without experience, they deceived me. Them refusing to comply, I withdrew. The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go? Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew. Arise, O thee that sleepest! O wretched us! shut from the light of hope! Thee too! Brutus, my son! Him having absented himself, they could not proceed.

RULE XXV.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences; as, "John *and* James are studious, *but* William is idle."

Observations.

1. The conjunction *that*, when it introduces a clause used as the subject of a verb, does not connect it to any other term; as, "*That* mind is not matter, is certain." It merely serves to show that the clause which it introduces is dependent.

2. After *than* or *as* expressing a comparison, there is usually an *ellipsis* of some word or words. The construction of the words employed may be known by supplying the ellipsis; as, "She is younger than I" [*am*].—"He does nothing, who endeavors to do more than [*what*] is allowed to humanity."

3. The corresponsive conjunctions are used in pairs, the object being to make the connection, comparison, or contrast more striking or emphatic. The following are examples:

Both he *and* I were present.
He was *either* ashamed *or* afraid.
John came *neither* eating *nor* drinking.
Though he were dead, *yet* shall he live, etc.

4. After *as* or *than* expressing comparison, there is usually an omission of some word or words; as, "John is as good a scholar as William" [*is*].—"He is younger than I" [*am*].

RULE XXVI.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no dependent construction; as, "O! let not thy heart despise me."

ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

PHRASES.

Phrases may be **simple, compound,** or **complex.**

A **compound phrase** is one that consists of two or more phrases connected by a conjunction; as, "Stooping down and looking in."

A **complex phrase** is one that contains a phrase used as an adjunct of its principal part; as, "By the bounty *of Heaven.*"

The **principal part** of a phrase is the word on which all the other parts of the phrase depend; as, "In the *spring* of the year."

Phrases may be used to perform the office of different parts of speech, as in the following examples:—

1. A noun; as, "*To do good* is our duty."
2. An adjective; as, "He is a person *of good reputation.*"
3. An adverb; as, "*In the spring* I shall return."

Phrases may be used in various constructions, as in the following examples:—

1. A subject or attribute; as, "*To be good* is to be happy."
2. An object; as, "She desires *to learn French.*"
3. In apposition (explanatory); as, "It is best *to be careful.*"
4. Independent; as, "*Shame being lost,* all virtue is lost."

OBS. 1.—A preposition that introduces a phrase, serves only to express the relation between the principal part, and the word of the sentence, on which the phrase depends.

OBS. 2.—Phrases are also classified as to their form, depending upon the *introducing* word, or the *principal* part; thus:

1. A phrase, introduced by a preposition, is called a **prepositional phrase;** as, "By doing good." "Of great learning."
2. A phrase, the principal part of which is a verb in the infinitive mood, is called an **infinite phrase;** as, "*To be good.*"
3. A phrase, the principal part of which is a participle, is called a **participial phrase;** as, "A measure *founded on justice.*"

SYNOPSIS OF ANALYSIS.

Sentences.	Simple, Complex, Compound.	Declarative. Interrogative. Imperative. Explanatory.
Clauses.	Simple, Complex, Compound,	Dependent. Independent.
Propositions or Simple Sentences.	Subject—Word, Phrase, or Clause. Predicate verb. Object or Attribute—Word, Phrase, or Clause.	

Adjuncts.	Of Sub. Of Pred. verb, Of Obj. or Att.	Words, Phrases, or Clauses,	Simple, Complex, Compound,	Adjective, Adverbial, Explan.

Exercises.

In this, and each of the following exercises, let the pupil be required to analyze each sentence according to the example, and parse each word as in preceding exercises; then to construct *five additional sentences of the same character.*

I.—Subject Phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"To be at once a rake and glory in the character, discovers a bad disposition and a bad heart."

This is a simple declarative sentence, having a compound subject. The subject is composed of the two phrases, *To be at once a rake* and *to glory in the character*, connected by *and;* the principal part of the first phrase is *to be;* and its adjuncts are the adverbial phrase *at once* and the indefinite attribute *rake* (see under Rule XIII.), modified by *a;* the principal part of the second phrase is, *to glory;* and its adjunct is the simple adverbial phrase, *in the character*, the principal part being modified by *the*. The predicate verb is *discovers;* the objects, *disposition* and *heart*, each modified by the adjuncts *a* and *bad*.

To do good to all men is the duty of a Christian. Riding on horseback is a beneficial exercise. To live soberly, righteously, and piously, comprehends the whole of our duty. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character. To have remained calm under such provocations was a proof of remarkable self-control. To be continually subject to the breath of slander will tarnish the purest reputation. To perceive nothing or not to perceive, is the same. To profess regard and act injuriously discovers a base mind. To know one's own ignorance is generally conducive to improvement. To be happy without the approval of conscience, is impossible. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

II.—Object Phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *Pope*; the predicate verb is *professed*; the object is the complex phrase, *to have learned his poetry from Dryden*. The principal part of the phrase is, *to have learned*; its adjuncts, the object *poetry* and the simple adverbial phrase, *from Dryden*; *poetry* is modified by the adjunct *his*.

We should always desire to obey the dictates of conscience. He who desires to be happy should cultivate integrity and self-respect. We swear to preserve the blessings for which our fathers toiled and bled. The teacher enjoined upon his pupils, to be industrious in study, to cultivate a virtuous disposition, and especially to love truth. Seek earnestly to improve your talents. Cease to do evil, learn to do well. I dare not proceed so hastily, lest I give offence. Never attempt to conceal a fault, but confess it freely. We should love to do what God commands. Artaxerxes being thus entreated, could not refuse to pardon him. By the faults of others, wise men learn to correct their own. He began again to teach by the seaside.

III.—Attribute Phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"His object was not to surprise his readers."

A simple declarative sentence. The subject noun is *object*, modified by the adjunct *his*; the predicate verb is *was*, modified by the adverb *not*; the attribute is the phrase *to surprise his readers*; the principal part of the phrase is *to surprise*, the object of which is *readers*, modified by *his*.

The object of punishment should be, to reform the wicked. To be good is to be happy. To surrender without making resistance, would be to submit to a base and inglorious death. To attempt further to illustrate so plain a truth, would be only to spend time uselessly. To smile on those whom we should censure, is to bring guilt upon ourselves. The tendency of evil is to make men miserable. The highest art of the mind of man, is to possess itself with tranquillity in the hour of danger. He was known to be kept in close custody at Oxford. My power is to advise, not to compel. Is life to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? The ship is to sail to-morrow. His conduct was greatly to be admired. My friend is in very good health. The train might have been off the track. The vessel was behind its usual time. To submit to insult is to give occasion for it. The silver age is reckoned to have commenced at the death of Augustus.

IV.—Adjective and Adverbial Phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"Where there is no knowledge of the law, a man acting in opposition to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it."

A complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is, *a man acting in opposition to it cannot be properly said to transgress it;* the dependent clause is, *where there is no knowledge of the law.* The connective is *where.*

The subject noun in the principal clause is *man;* the predicate verb, *can be said;* the attribute, *to transgress it.* The adjuncts of the subject are *a*, and the complex adjective phrase, *acting in opposition to it;* the principal part of the phrase is *acting*, modified by the complex adverbial phrase, *in opposition to it*, the principal part of which is *opposition*, modified by the simple adjective phrase, *to it.* The adjuncts of the predicate are *not* and *properly*, and the dependent clause; the adjunct of the attribute is the object *it.*

Genius has often been discovered in persons of a very humble condition in life. In summer the fervid sun darting his direct rays, oppresses us with heat. A man of integrity will never listen to any reason against conscience. The ambition to excel was manifest in all his acts. An old man was busily employed in planting and ingrafting an apple-tree. We should always strive to do right. Eliza's benevolence in relieving the poor was much to be commended. Ch istians should exhibit an ability to endure the various vicissitudes of life. Newton's ideas regarding the nature of comets, were quite fanciful. Honors bestowed on the illustrious dead have in them no admixture of envy. A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a guard against committing them.

V.—Explanatory Phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"It is a Christian's vocation to do good to all."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *it;* the predicate verb is *is;* the attribute is *vocation.* The adjunct of the subject is the explanatory phrase, *to do good to all;* the principal part of the phrase is *to do*, its adjuncts are the object *good* and the simple adverbial phrase, *to all.* The adjunct of the attribute is *Christian's*, modified by *a.*

It is a great crime to deceive the innocent and confiding. It is good to sing praises unto our God. It is impossible to instruct those who have no desire to learn. It is of little use to form plans of life. It deserves our best skill, to inquire into those rules by which we may guide our judgment. It is a sign of great prudence to be willing to receive instruction. It is the duty of public speakers, in addressing any popular assembly, to be previously masters of their subject. It pleased Darius the King to set over the kingdom a hundred and twenty princes, who should be over the whole kingdom.

VI.—Independent Phrases.

EXAMPLE 1.—"Night coming on, the battle was discontinued."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject noun is *battle;* the predicate verb is *was discontinued.* The adjunct of the subject is *the. Night coming on,* is an independent phrase; its principal part is *night,* the adjunct of which is the participial phrase, *coming on,* of which *coming* is the principal part, and its adjunct, *on.*

EXAMPLE 2.—"To speak candidly, I did not quite understand the subject."

A simple declarative sentence. The subject is *I;* the predicate verb is *did understand;* the object is *subject.* The adjuncts of the verb are *not* and *quite;* that of the object is *the. To speak candidly* is an independent phrase; the principal part being *to speak,* modified by *candidly.*

To confess the truth, I was very much in fault. Generally speaking, the conduct of that man was unexceptionable. Theron and Aspasia took a morning walk into the fields; their spirits cheered, and their imaginations lively; gratitude glowing in their hearts, and the whole creation smiling around them. The Senate consented to the creation of tribunes of the people, Appius alone protesting against the measure. To be plain with you, your conduct is very much to be censured. Considering the circumstances, the degree of success which you have attained, is highly deserving of commendation. All obstacles having been overcome, he finally reached the goal of his ambition. My dear friend, how glad I am to see you! Pause for a while, ye travelers of earth, to contemplate the universe around you! Green be the turf above thee, friend of my better days! Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

CLAUSES.

I.—Subject Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"That vice conducts to misery, is certain."

A complex declarative sentence. The subject is the dependent clause, *Vice conducts to misery;* the predicate verb is *is;* the attribute is *certain.* The subject of the dependent clause is *vice;* the predicate is *conducts,* modified by the simple adverbial phrase, *to misery. That* is the connective.

That you have wronged me, doth appear in this. Whence proceeded this sad calamity, has not been ascertained. Why he committed so dreadful a crime, is a mystery. Who wrote the letters of Junius, is not positively known. That it is our duty to be kind to our fellow-creatures, does not admit of a doubt. That I know not what I want, is the cause of my complaint. How this difficulty is to be solved, is beyond conjecture. That idleness leads to ruin, and that industry insures success, are certain truths. That Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, is a well-known historical fact. That integrity is essential to success in life, ought to be continually inculcated on the young.

II.—Object Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"Remember that indolence can lead to nothing but disgrace and misery."

A complex imperativo sentence. The subject is *thou* (understood); the predicate verb is *remember;* the object is the dependent clause, *Indolence can lead*, etc. *That* is the connective. The subject of the dependent clause is *indolence;* the predicate verb is *can lead*, which is modified by the complex adverbial phrase, *to nothing but disgrace and misery;* the principal part of this phrase is *nothing*, modified by the phrase, *but disgrace and misery. But* is a preposition.

The orator felt that every eye was upon him. John says that his brother is not well. Always bear in mind that you owe very much to your parents. The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God. See! Aspasia, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind. He said, that he was well apprised of the obedience which he owed to the laws. She had now to learn what it is to be a slave. Consider well whether you are able to perform this great undertaking. Remember, Almet, that the world in which thou art placed, is but the road to another. And Nathan said unto David, Thou art the man. Then said Joab to Cushi, Go tell the king what thou hast seen. The scribes spake unto him, saying, Tell us by what authority doest thou these things? The cynic observed, that the philosopher who could dine on herbs, might despise the company of a king.

III.—Infinitive Object Clauses.

OBS.—In the infinitive form of this clause, the subject and predicate are connected *indirectly*. The predicate, instead of being a finite verb, is a verb in the infinitive mood, and its subject is in the objective case. Thus, in the sentence, "He commanded the army to march," *army* is the subject, and *to march*, the predicate; because it is indicated (although indirectly) that the act of marching is performed by the agent *army*, the sentence being equivalent to, "He commanded that the army should march." (See Rule XXI.)

EXAMPLE.—"Conversation makes a man grow wiser."

A complex declarative sentence. The subject is *Conversation;* the predicate verb is *makes;* the object is the infinitive clause, *a man (to) grow wiser*. The subject of the dependent clause is *man*, modified by *a;* the predicate verb is, *to grow;* the attribute, *wiser*.

I heard him relate the story of his wrongs. I heard a faint voice call my name. Let us then be up and doing. In this melancholy state, he commanded messengers to recall his eldest son, Abouzaid, from the army. Let the dead past bury its dead. We often see bad men intrusted with very important duties. The united testimony of

many witnesses, proved him to be guilty of the crime with which he was charged. Forbid them to enter the garden. The Sovereigns requested Columbus to return, and be present at the Convention. It was the peculiar artifice of Habit, not to suffer her power to be felt at first.

IV.—Attribute Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"His reply was, that he was sure of success."

A complex declarative sentence. The subject noun is *reply*; the predicate verb is *was*; the attribute is the dependent clause, *He was sure of success*. The connective is *that*.

My hope is, that you will regain your liberty. His decision was, that the culprit should be punished. The physician's directions were, that the patient should travel to the South, that he should avoid excitement, and that he should be careful in diet. Kepler's opinion with regard to the tides was, that they are caused by the attraction of the moon. The general sentiment is, that the rebellion is entirely unjustifiable. The cause of so great an error might have been, that the subject had not been sufficiently studied. The cause of the defeat, was that the army had not been supplied with the means of transportation.

V.—Adjective and Adverbial Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"And when the king came in to see the guests, he saw there a man that had not on a wedding garment."

A complex declarative sentence. Subject, *he*; predicate verb, *saw*; object, *man*. Adjuncts of predicate, *there*, and the adverbial clause, *when the king came in to see the guests*; adjuncts of object, *a*, and the adjective clause, *that had not on a wedding garment*. (Let the pupil analyze each dependent clause as in the preceding exercises.)

When they arrived at the orchard, they commenced to gather the fruit which they found scattered on the ground. While you are striving to acquire knowledge, endeavor also to become virtuous and good. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. He who talks loudly of qualities that he does not possess, is a boaster. The globe on which we live is called the earth. What we are afraid to do before men, we should be much more afraid to think before God. The place in which this event occurred, is not mentioned by the geographers who wrote at that time. The scholar who is attentive and persevering, is sure to excel. We naturally look with strong emotion to the spot, where the ashes of those we have loved, repose. He that lies abed all a summer's morning, loses the chief pleasures of the day; he that gives

up his youth to indolence, undergoes a loss of a like kind. Who would dare to molest him who might call, on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty? He who knows not what it is to labor, knows not what it is to enjoy. The promise that he should be rewarded, was kept. The merchant received intelligence that his ship had been wrecked.

VI.—Explanatory Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"It is an old saying that, 'Truth lies in a well.'"

A complex declarative sentence.

Subject, *it*; predicate verb, *is*; attribute, *saying*.

Adjunct of the subject the explanatory clause, *truth lies in a well*; adjuncts of attribute, *an* and *old*. *That*, a conjunction connecting the principal and the dependent clause.

It is said by some, that Columbus had a haughtiness of manner. It has been conclusively proved, that the earth is not the center of the universe. It has always been the earnest wish of parents, that their children should be well educated. It makes a great difference to us whether death is a perpetual sleep, or the beginning of another and better life. And it was told Joab, Behold, the king weepeth and mourneth for Absalom. The question whether purity or mixture of race is most conducive to national greatness, appears not to be fully settled. It is a source of astonishment to all his friends, that he should have been guilty of so disgraceful an act. It was observed, that he derived no joy from the benefits which he diffused. It was in the spring of the year, that Xerxes commenced his march to the Hellespont. It was with the utmost difficulty that the American union was formed.

VII.—Parenthetical Clauses.

EXAMPLE.—"'Life,' says Seneca, 'is a voyage, in the progress of which, we are perpetually changing our scenes.'"

A compound declarative sentence.

Subject, *life*; predicate verb, *is*; attribute, *voyage*.

Adjunct of *voyage* is the simple adjective clause, *in the progress of which we are perpetually changing our scenes*. The subject is *we*; predicate, *are changing*; object, *scenes*. Adjuncts of predicate, *perpetually*, and, *in the progress of which*—a complex adverbial phrase: principal part, *progress*; adjunct, *of which*. *Says Seneca*, is a simple parenthetical clause. Subject, *Seneca*; predicate verb, *says*.

OBS.—Sentences of this form may be analyzed by considering the parenthetical clause, the principal one, and the rest of the sentence a dependent clause. The mode indicated above is, however, preferable; as, although the parenthetical clause is united in construction with the other part of the sentence, it is not necessary to complete the sense.

Study, I beseech you, to store your minds with useful knowledge. "Thirst for glory," says a great writer, "is often founded on ambition and vanity." "Son of affliction," said Omar, "who art thou and what is thy distress?" "Almet," said he, "remember what thou hast seen, and let this memorial be written upon the tablet of thy heart." How dangerous soever idleness may be, are there not pleasures, it may be said, which attend it? A man who cannot read, let us always remember, is a being not contemplated by the genius of the American constitution.

Compound Sentences.

OBS. 1.—In analyzing compound sentences, the *leading clause* should be distinguished from the *subordinate clause*. It must also be understood that the dependence of the latter upon the former is *logical*, differing in this respect altogether from the relation of the *principal* and the *dependent* clause of a complex sentence, which is grammatical, the latter being an *adjunct*, or used as one of the *principal parts*, in the principal clause.

OBS. 2.—Some clauses are simply connected without logical or grammatical dependence. They may then be called **co-ordinate clauses.**

In the following examples of analysis, for the purpose of abbreviation, and in order to furnish the pupil with a ready method of clearly representing, in written exercises, the parts of a sentence and their relations, the *compound clauses* or *members*, are marked by capitals; the *simple clauses*, by numerals; and the *phrases*, by small letters. When these are all written out in their order, the general character of the sentence will be at once exhibited. In these statements S. stands for the subject noun or pronoun without its adjuncts; P., for the predicate verb; O., for the object; Att., for attribute; and Ad., for adjuncts.

It must be kept in mind by the pupil that the *complete subject* consists of the subject noun or pronoun and all its adjuncts; and the complete predicate, of the predicate verb and all its adjuncts, including the object or attribute; and that, in fact, there are but two parts in every sentence, each of these being separable into one primary part and adjunct.

EXAMPLE 1.—"The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue, the only lasting treasure, truth."

Compound declarative sentence, consisting of two co-ordinate clauses, without a connective.

1. *The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue;*
2. *The only lasting treasure (is) truth.*

1. Simple declarative clause.

S. *flower;* P. *is;* Att. *virtue.*

Ad. S. *the, only, amaranthine, on earth* (a).

a. Simple adjective phrase.

2. Simple declarative clause.
S. *treasure*; P. *is* (understood); Att. *truth*;
Ad. S. *the, only, lasting.*

EXAMPLE 2.—"If you study diligently in youth, you will be happy and prosperous in manhood."

Compound declarative sentence, consisting of
1. (Leading.) *You will be happy and prosperous in manhood*;
2. (Subordinate.) *You study diligently in youth*; Connective, *if*.
1. Simple declarative clause.
S. *You*; P. *will be*; Att. (compound) *happy and prosperous.*
Ad. P. *in manhood* (a).
a. Simple adverbial phrase.
2. Simple declarative clause.
S. *you*; P. *study*; Ad. P. *diligently, in youth* (b).
b. Simple adverbial phrase.

The clouds of sorrow gathered round his head; and the tempest of hatred roared about his dwelling. The tree was so crooked, that the farmer cut it down. Happiness is more equally divided among mankind, than some suppose. The meeting was so respectable, that the propriety of its decision can hardly be questioned. Science may raise thee to eminence, but religion alone can guide thee to felicity. Cecrops, who founded Athens, is thought to have been an Egyptian. No man of sense ever took any pains to appear wise; as no honest man ever used any tricks to display his own integrity. A reply is properly a return to an answer: *to answer* and *to reply* are therefore not always equivalent expressions. Others sometimes appear to us more wrong than they are, because we ourselves are not right in judging them.

Miscellaneous Sentences.

EXAMPLE 1.—"To learn is to proceed from something that is known to something that is unknown."

Complex declarative sentence.
S. *to learn*; P. *is*; Att. *to proceed .....unknown* (a).
a. Complex phrase.—Prin. part, *to proceed*; Adjuncts, *from something that is known* (b); *to something that is unknown* (c).
b. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *something*;
Ad. *that is known* (1).
1. Simple adjective clause.
S. *that*; P. *is*; Att. *known.*
c. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *something.*
Ad. *that is unknown* (2).
2. Simple adjective clause.

Example 2.—"I was now so confident of a miraculous supply of food that I neglected to walk out for my repast, which, after the first day, I expected with an impatience which left me little power of attending to any other object."

Compound declarative sentence.

1. *I was*.....*food*; A. *I neglected*... ....*object*; connective, *that*.

1. Simple clause.

S. *I*; P. *was*; Att. *confident*. Ad. P. *now*; Ad. Att. *so*, and *of a miraculous supply of food* (a).

a. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *supply*; Ad. *a, miraculous, of food*.

A. Compound member.

2. *I neglected*. .....*repast*; B. *which*.....*object*; connective, *which*.

2. Simple clause.

S. *I*; P. *neglected*; O. *to walk out for my repast* (b).

b. Complex objective phrase.—Prin. part, *to walk*; Ad. *out, for my repast*.

B. Complex member.

S. *I*; P. *expected*; O. *which*. Ad. P. *after the first day, with an impatience which left me*... ....*object* (c).

c. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *impatience*;

Ad. *an* and *which left me little power of attending to any other object* (3).

3. Simple adjective clause.

S. *which*; P. *left*; O. *power*; Ad. P. (*to*) *me*; Ad. O. *little, of attending to any other object* (d).

d. Complex adjective phrase.—Prin. part, *attending*; Ad. *to any other object* (e).

e. Simple adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *object*; Ad. *any, other*.

Example 3.—

"Order is Heaven's first law; and this confessed,
Some are, and must be, greater than the rest,
More rich, more wise; but who infers from hence
That such are happier, shocks all common sense."

Compound sentence; consisting of two co-ordinate members.

A. *Order*..... *wise*; B. *who*.....*sense*; Con. *but*.

A. Compound declarative member.

1. *Order*.....*law*; C. *this*.....*wise*; Con. *and*.

1. Simple declarative clause.

S. *order*; P. *is*; Att. *law*; Ad. Att. *heaven's, first*.

C. Compound declarative member.

2. *Some are, and must be, greater, more rich, more wise*.

3. *The rest* (*are*); Con. *than*; *This* (*being*) *confessed*, is an independent phrase.

B. Complex declarative member.

S. *He* (understood); P. *shocks*; O. *sense*;

Ad. S. *Who infers*.....*happier* (D.); Ad. O. *all, common*.

D. Complex adjective member.

S. *who*; P. *infers*; O. *that such are happier* (1).

Ad. P. *from hence*.

4. Simple object clause.

S. *such*; P. *are*; Att. *happier*; Con. *that*.

Obs.—It will be perceived from the examples analyzed in this and in the foregoing exercises, that *complex sentences* may be analyzed in two

ways: 1. By dividing the sentence immediately into the principal and dependent clauses, explaining their connection, and then analyzing them separately; and 2. By treating the sentence as a whole, pointing out the subject, predicate, etc., and analyzing the dependent clause in its proper place, as one of the principal parts, or an adjunct to either. The former method is perhaps preferable for beginners, but for more advanced students should give place to the latter, which is more logical and easier for intricate sentences.

Let the pupil analyze orally, or prepare a written analysis of the sentences in the following paragraphs, according to the preceding examples, and parse each word syntactically.

1. It is an empty joy to appear better than you are, but a great blessing to be what you ought to be.

2. Take counsel of the oracle in thine own heart, for there is not a more faithful monitor than that which speaks in secret there.

3. It is said that some thieves who once robbed a traveler, very gravely charged him with dishonesty for concealing a part of his money.

4. If men praise your efforts, suspect their judgment; if they censure them, your own.

5. When the million applaud you, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done; when they censure you, what good.

6. The ignorant have often given credit to the wise for powers that are permitted to none, merely because the wise have made a proper use of those powers permitted to all.

7. We often pretend to fear what we really despise, but more often to despise what we really fear.

8. Few men, that would cause respect and distance merely, can say anything by which their end will be so effectually answered as by silence.

9. Disguise thyself as thou wilt, still, Slavery! still thou art a bitter draught; and though thousands in all ages have been made to drink of thee, thou art no less bitter on that account.

10. Knowledge is, indeed, power; but it is power to kill as well as to make alive, as it is wielded by the madness of the heart, or by moral principle.

11. His story shows how one lapse from duty may counterbalance the merits of a thousand services; how one moment of weakness may mar the beauty of a whole life of virtue; and how important it is for a man, under all circumstances, to be true not merely to others, but to himself.

12. "My friends," said he, "I have seriously considered our manners and our prospects; and I find that we have mistaken our own interest. Let us therefore stop, while to stop is in our power."

13. Were a man of pleasure to arrive at the full extent of his several wishes, he must immediately feel himself miserable. It is one species of despair to have no room to hope for any addition to one's happiness. His following wish must then be, to wish that he had some fresh object for his wishes.

14. It was easy to discover, by the alacrity which broke out at her departure, that her presence had been long displeasing, and that she had been teaching those who felt in themselves no want of instruction.

15. Lament who will, in fruitless tears,
The speed with which our moments fly;
I sigh not over vanished years,
But watch the years that hasten by.

16. Oh! there is never sorrow of heart
That shall lack a timely end,
If but to God we turn, and ask
Of Him to be our friend!

17. Labor with what zeal we will,
Something still remains undone;
Something uncompleted still
Waits the rising of the sun.

18. God blesses still the generous thought,
And still the fitting word he speeds;
And Truth, at his requiring taught,
He quickens unto deeds.

19. The Spring—she is a blessed thing:
She is mother of the flowers;
She is the mate of buds and bees,
The partner of their revelries,
Our star of hope through wintry hours.

20. Tell me not in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream!
For the soul is dead that slumbers,
And things are not what they seem.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

I.—PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relation of the words, and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading.

The following are the principal points, or marks: the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Dash [—], the Note of Interrogation [?], the Note of Exclamation [!], and the Marks of Parenthesis—Curves ( ) and Brackets [ ].

Rules for Punctuation.

Comma.

The comma should be used to separate:

1. The simple clauses of a compound sentence, when they are not divided by a comma; as, "Art is long, and time is fleeting."

2. Dependent clauses when not used as modifications; as, "Columbus, who discovered America, was a great navigator."

3. Words and phrases in apposition; as, "He is dead, the beautiful youth."—"O my son Absalom, my son, my son Absalom!"

4. Phrases placed out of their natural order; as, "In everything pertaining to language, he was proficient."

5. Independent words and phrases; as, "John, bring me a book."—"The sun rising, darkness flees away."

6. A series of three or more words used in the same construction; as, "William, John, and Charles are good scholars."—"The horses turned, looked, and ran away."

7. Two connected words emphatically distinguished; as, "Charles, and not his brother, is in fault."

8. The subject when long and involved; as, "He who strives to injure others, will never enjoy peace of mind."

9. Parenthetical expressions; as, "Cultivate, I beg of you, purity, sincerity, and humility."—"A contract, to be valid, must be properly attested."

10. Words separated in construction by the omission of one or more words; as, "Labor brings pleasure; idleness, pain."

Semicolon.

The semicolon should be used to separate:

1. Simple clauses but slightly connected; as, "We love liberty; we respect the rights of men; we glory in independence."

2. Compound or complex clauses; as,

"There is a day of sunny rest
For every dark and troubled night;
And grief may bide an evening guest,
But joy shall come with early light."—*Bryant.*

Colon.

The colon should be used to separate:

1. The members of a compound sentence, when they are divided by semicolons; as,

"He sunk to repose where the red heaths are blended;
One dream of his childhood his fancy passed o'er:
But his battles are fought, and his march it is ended;
The sound of the bagpipe shall wake him no more."—*Gillespie.*

2. Quotations, examples, and enumerations; as, "Always strive to follow the golden rule: 'Do unto others as you would have others do unto you.'" "There are three cardinal virtues: faith, hope, and charity."

OBS.—When a quotation is short and simple, the comma may be used for the colon.

Period.

The period should be used :

1. At the end of every sentence.

2. After an abbreviated word; as, "Jno. A. Smith."—"Gibbon's Hist., vol. ii., p. 155."

Dash.

The dash is used :

1. To denote an unexpected or abrupt pause; as, "Was there ever —but I scorn to boast."

2. Before a word repeated for emphasis; as, "Shall I—I who have fought so many battles, be compared to this stripling?"

3. To separate parenthetical expressions; as, "There are times—they only can understand who have known them—when our emotions are voiceless."

4. Before an enumeration; as, "She had studied the four great masters of English poetry—Chaucer, Spencer, Shakspeare, and Milton."

Note of Interrogation.

The note of interrogation is used to denote a question; as, "Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?"

Note of Exclamation.

The note of exclamation is used to denote some strong or sudden emotion; as, "O! let me listen to the words of life!"

Curves.

The curves, or marks of parenthesis, are used to enclose parenthetical expressions; as,

> "To others do (the law is not severe)
> What to thyself thou wishest to be done."

Brackets.

The brackets, or crotchets, generally enclose some correction or explanation; as, "He [the speaker] was of a different opinion."

Other Marks.

There are also other marks that are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow :—

1. ['] The *Apostrophe* usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun, or the elision of one or more letters of a word; as, "The *girl's* regard for her *parents'* advice;"—*'gan, lov'd, e'en, thro';* for *began, loved, even, through.*

2. [-] The *Hyphen* connects the parts of compound words; as, *ever-living, four-footed.* Placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.

3. [¨] The *Diæresis*, placed over the latter of two vowels, shows that they are not a diphthong; as, *aërial.*

4. [/] The *Acute Accent* marks the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, *équal, équal'ity.* It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close or short vowel, or to denote the rising inflection of the voice.

5. [\ ] The *Grave Accent* is used, in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open or long vowel, or to denote the falling inflection of the voice.

6. [^] The *Circumflex* generally denotes either the broad sound of *a*, or an unusual and long sound given to some other vowel; as, in *âir, câre, êre, thêre, hêir, ûrn, bûrn.*

7. [˘] The *Breve* is used to denote either a close vowel or a syllable of short quantity; as, *răven*, to devour.

8. [¯] The *Macron* is used to denote either an open vowel or a syllable of long quantity; as, *rāven*, a bird.

9. [——] or [****] The *Ellipsis* denotes the omission of some letters or words; as, *K—g* for *king.*

10. [^] The *Caret* shows where to insert words that have been accidentally omitted.

11. [}] The *Brace* serves to unite a triplet, or to connect several terms with something to which they are all related.

12. [§] The *Section* marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and, with the help of numbers, serves to abridge references.

13. [¶] The *Paragraph* (chiefly used in the Bible) denotes the commencement of a new subject. The parts of discourse which are called paragraphs, are, in general, sufficiently distinguished, by beginning a new line, and carrying the first word a little forward or backward.

14. [" "] The *Quotation Points* distinguish words that are taken from some other author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points; which, when both are employed, are placed within the others.

15. [☞] The *Index*, or *Hand*, points out something remarkable.

16. [*] The *Asterisk*, [†] the *Obelisk*, [‡] the *Double Dagger*, and [‖] the *Parallels*, refer to marginal notes. The *letters* of the alphabet, or the numerical *figures*, may be used for the same purpose.

17. [***] The *Asterism*, or *Three Stars*, a sign not very often used, is placed before a long or general note, to mark it as a note, without giving it a particular reference.

18. [ç] The *Cedilla* is a mark which is sometimes set under a letter to show that its sound, in the given word, is soft; as *façade*, where the *c* sounds as *s*.

II.—UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

Pronunciation.

Pronunciation, as distinguished from elocution, is the utterance of words taken separately.

Pronunciation requires a knowledge of the just powers of the letters in all their combinations, and of the force and seat of the accent.

1. The **Just Powers** of the letters are those sounds which are given to them by the best speakers and readers.

2. **Accent** is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular syllable of a word, whereby that syllable is distinguished from and above the rest; as *gram'-mar*, *gram-ma' ri-an.*

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented.

When the word is long, for the sake of harmony or distinctness, we often give a secondary, or less forcible accent, to another syllable; as, to the last of *tem'-per-a-ture'*, and to the second of *in-dem'-ni-fi-ca'-tion.*

A full and open pronunciation of the long vowel sounds, a clear articulation of the consonants, a forcible and well-placed accent, and a distinct utterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the elegant speaker.

Elocution.

Elocution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and that form discourse.

Elocution requires a knowledge, and right application, of **emphasis, pauses, inflections,** and **tones.**

1. **Emphasis** is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular word or words in a sentence, which are thereby distinguished from the rest as being especially significant.

2. **Pauses** are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to relieve the speaker, and to render language intelligible and pleasing. The duration of the pauses should be proportionate to the degree of connection between the parts of the discourse.

3. **Inflections** are those peculiar variations of the human voice, by which a continuous sound is made to pass from one note, key, or pitch, into another. The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher or shriller note, is called the *rising inflection*;—the passage of the voice from a higher to a lower or graver note, is called the *falling inflection.*

These two opposite inflections may be heard in the following examples: 1. *The rising,* "Do you mean to *go?*"—2. *The falling,* "When will you *go?*"

OBS.—*Questions* that may be answered by *yes* or *no*, require the rising inflection: those that demand any other answer, must be uttered with the falling inflection.

4. **Tones** are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. They are what Sheridan denominates "the language of emotions." And it is of the utmost importance that they be natural, unaffected, and rightly adapted to the subject and to the occasion; for upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elocution.

III.—FIGURES.

A **figure** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, formation, construction, or application of words.

There are, therefore, figures of Orthography, of Etymology, of Syntax, and of Rhetoric.

OBS.—When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than in prose, several of them being merely poetic licenses.

[For full treatment of this part of Prosody, see "The Institutes of English Grammar," by the same author.]

IV.—VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the art of arranging words into lines of correspondent length, so as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

[See "The Institutes of English Grammar."]

COMPOSITION.

The pupil is now sufficiently advanced to apply to his own compositions the various principles and rules requisite for their full correction. The following suggestions are designed to afford a guide to the teacher and pupils for a series of graded exercises in continuation of the practical **language lessons** already interspersed through this work.

Preliminary Exercises.

1. *Read a story, biographical sketch, or incident in history; and require the pupils to reproduce it in their own language, as far as possible.*

This exercise should be continued sufficiently long to familiarize the pupils with the narrative style of composition, and to teach them to avoid the awkward expressions and repetitions customary with those untrained in this branch of composition. The simplest and easiest narratives should at first be selected.

2. *Write out, or otherwise give to the pupils, a full account of any particular incident or event, and require them to abridge or condense it, omitting all but the most important circumstances.*

3. *Write a brief account of any incident or event, and require the pupils to expand it, adding any circumstances which they may conceive could have existed or occurred in connection with the facts stated.*

Both these exercises of *condensation* and *expansion* should be continued for some time, as they cultivate special faculties of the mind, most important to be addressed in training the pupil in the production and expression of thought.

4. *Select a piece of poetry, and require the pupils to express the same thoughts in prose, using a plainer and less figurative style.*

Be careful to select only such pieces as are fully adapted to the pupils' comprehension.

5. *Require the pupils to write an analysis of any piece of prose or poetry, giving the topics treated, with the arguments and illustrations employed, etc.*

Begin with easy pieces, and advance gradually to more difficult ones. Do not give argumentative pieces at first. This exercise, when skillfully employed, is a most excellent one, as it will go far to impart to the mind habits of regular, logical thought.

6. *Require the pupils to write out criticisms of selected pieces, making observations on the thoughts, their arrangement and relation to the subject, as well as the modes of expression employed.*

These exercises will prepare the mind for writing compositions on miscellaneous subjects. This is a task which should never be imposed without the preliminary exercises. Many pupils are permanently disgusted with composition by being required to perform this impossible task.

Original Composition.

7. *Assign a subject, or theme, and suggest the mode of treatment, writing down for the pupils the topics which should be considered and discussed, with the arrangement to be employed.*

This exercise should be pursued until the pupils' minds have become accustomed to the discovery of topics. It is designed to afford training in what is called, in rhetoric, *Invention.*

During the exercise, the teachers should require the pupils to suggest the topics, before deciding himself what is proper.

8. *Reverse the above exercise; that is, select an appropriate subject, and require the pupils to discover the topics which should be treated under it, and to write, by properly arranging them, an analysis of the mode of treatment.*

This should be done at first so as to afford a brief sketch or outline, which afterward may be expanded by, or filled in, by suggesting illustrations, arguments, etc., under each topic. As considerable exercise of this kind will be needed, the pupils should be required to write out in full only an occasional composition, but the analysis should be copied in a book, and preserved by the pupil, for the next exercise, which is the writing of compositions on selected themes.

9. *Require the pupils to write compositions on subjects either selected for them or suggested by their own minds.*

It is preferable, at this stage, that the pupils should select their own subjects, as a general thing, in order to give full scope to the original suggestions of the mind, and to the unfolding of any special talent or genius for composition, which will often be found to show itself under the training here outlined, if it be faithfully persevered in.

LETTER-WRITING.

In connection with the above exercises, the pupils should be instructed in **letter-writing.** This will include the proper forms, as shown below.

Heading.

The heading consists of the name of the place (sometimes the street and number) from which the letter is sent, and the date,—including month, day, and year. This should be written a line or two from the top of the page, and should be commenced so that it may end near the margin of the sheet at the right. Thus:—

New York, May 10, 1882.

Or, when the street is mentioned:—

56 *Lafayette Place,*
New York, May 10, 1882.

Address.

The address should, in formal letters, follow on the next line, near the left side of the page, usually a little to the right of the body of the letter. Thus:—

Mr. Thomas H. Brown,
Springfield, Ill.

Sir,

Or, in less formal letters:—

Mr. William A. Thompson,

Dear Sir,

Or, as implying greater intimacy:—

Mr. John B. Smith,

My dear Sir,

Where the address is to a company, the following may be used:—

Messrs. William Wood & Co.,
New York.

Gentlemen,

In less formal letters, the address may be written below and at the left of the signature, at the end of the letter.

Other forms of address will be required according to circumstances, varying with the persons addressed and the terms of intimacy that exist. Thus:—

A. B. Palmer, Esq.; John Porter, M.D.; Dr. John Porter; B. C. Baldwin, LL.D.; Rev. H. J. Davis, or *Rev. Mr. Davis; Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D.;* etc.

When ladies are addressed, the following are customary:—

Miss Brown; Miss Kate Field; Mrs. George Burns; Mrs. General Grant; etc.

These may be followed by:—

Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Sir, Sirs, Gentlemen; Madam, Dear Madam, My dear Madam, Ladies; Dear Mr. Hart, My dear Mr. Smith; Dear Friend, My dear Friend, etc.

The title *Hon.* is applied to persons holding high governmental positions; *His Excellency* is applied to the President of the United States and to State Governors.

Body.

The body of the letter should be commenced on the line next below the address, and a little to the right of it. The style will vary with the character of the letter. Business letters should be formal, brief, and to the point. Friendly correspondence requires an easy, familiar style, for the acquisition of which the study of good models will be very useful. A few specimens for the *opening* are here given:—

Yours of the 5th inst. is just received, etc.

Your favor of the 3d inst. is received, etc.

Your esteemed favor of the 10th inst. is at hand, etc.

I am in receipt of yours, etc.

Yours of the 20th ult. has remained unanswered until now, etc.

Closing.

The forms of closing, followed by the signature, are various. A few are here given:

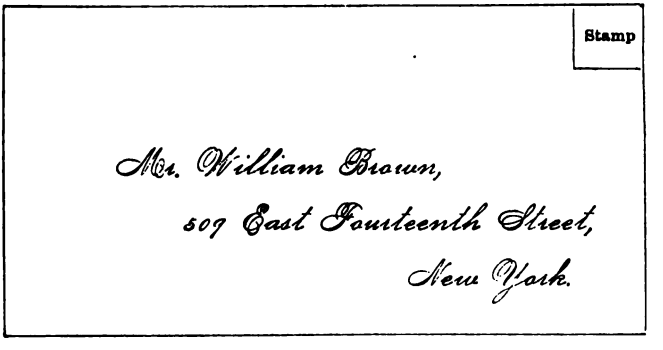
Respectfully yours; Very respectfully yours; Truly yours; Yours truly; Very truly yours; Your obedient servant; Your obedient humble servant; Yours cordially; Faithfully yours; Yours affectionately; Ever affectionately yours; As ever, your friend; etc.

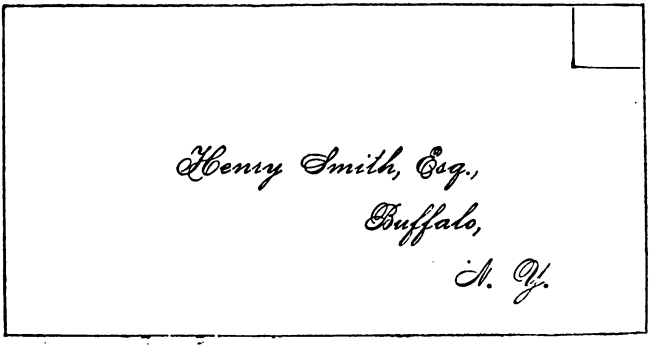
Superscription.

Write the name about midway between the top and bottom of the envelope; under this write the address, commencing each line a little farther to the right than that above it. Great care should be taken to make the address as legible as possible.

Affix the postage-stamp to the right-hand corner at the top of the envelope.

The following are examples:—





Mrs. H. M. Sanders,
Milford,
Pike Co.,
Pa.

His Excellency A. B. Cornell,
Executive Chamber,
Albany,
N. Y.

Hon. R. P. Flower, M. C.,
House of Representatives,
Washington,
D. C.

APPENDIX.

A KEY

TO THE

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER RULE I.

I have bought an hour-glass. He has sold a horse. William is an honest boy. They have formed a union. Richard has bought a history. Bring me a ewer of water. Will you eat an onion? It was an habitual practice. Mr. S. is a haughty man. This is the work of an historian. That was a humiliation.

I have a black and white horse. Mr. H. is a wise and good man. Xenophon was a hero and sage. All esteemed the patriot and general, Washington. The poet and the painter must be men of genius.

He was named king. She received the title of duchess. The chief magistrate is styled governor. The teacher receives sometimes the name of master.

UNDER RULE II.

I do not like this sort of people. Charles is brighter than any of the other pupils. These three boys were striking one another. Bring those books to me. Do not walk so slowly. The plank was twenty feet long. John and his sister Mary were very fond of each other. Peter is a very bad writer. Mr. J. is an exceedingly bad man. William is more industrious than any of his schoolmates. Any of those four pupils can be trusted. He can walk more than twenty miles a day. How beautifully she writes! The last of those three pictures is the prettiest; but none of them pleases me. Fishes of this kind are hard to catch. They are the liveliest creatures you ever saw. A more handsome dress you never saw. What a terrible cold you have! Try to get well as quickly as you can. Be careful like me; or, as I am.

UNDER RULE III.

Tell me whether you will do it or not. Why do you say nothing? This piece of work looks very fine. The wind blew keen. He came only to do mischief. He has accomplished but very little. Nothing can ever justify an untruth. The bird flies very swiftly. I cannot do any more. Neither he nor any one else can do that. The man discharged only his duty. He only read the book; he did not tear it.

He read only the book, not the notice of it. The ship is expected to sail soon. Not every pupil can read well; or, It is not every pupil that can read well. He went directly to the place. The two ladies were dressed nearly alike. Be not dishonest, nor take advantage of any one. He was able to pay the debt but in part.

Under Rule IV.

She wastes her time in reading novels. He could not have written the letter. To learn anything well requires application. I saw him do it myself. By studying faithfully we acquire knowledge. John could not have gone to school. Charles began well, but ended badly. While crossing the street, we saw the lady. By reading good books he improved his mind. William neglected to go on the errand. To relieve the distressed should be a pleasure. I intended to return the book. I never desired to have such a friend.

Under Rule V.

For whom was this meant? They all perished of thirst. I don't see anything in this. The cat jumped upon the table. The child was six years old; or, of age. With how much did his father send him to town? He lives in Mulberry Street, at No. 15. He asked the pupil a question. They plunged into the river. He rode several miles on horseback, driving a herd of oxen. I have no occasion for his services. Mr. S. divided his property among his four sons. The lamb followed its mother. He plunged into the river, and swam across it. In which of these books can I find that passage? He put into his wagon a basket of apples, without a cover. That remark is not worthy of your notice. He quarreled with all his friends, and disgusted them. Always strive to profit by good advice.

Under Rule VI.

I know they are entirely mistaken. She and I are going to take a walk. She and I went to school together. You and we are very fortunate. They who do right shall be rewarded. That is the boy who we think did the mischief. You know as well as I what was done. Who opened the door? I. My brother is older than I. Who do you suppose did it? Are not thou and he related?

Under Rule VII.

I have heard from my cousin, her that was here last week. I saw your friend, him that I met with you Only my sister was there, she that you saw yesterday. I went with John and William, them who were sent on an errand. The boys were not to blame, that is, they who went with me. I saw at Smith's your sister Mary's photograph.

Under Rule VIII.

You were kindly received. Appearances are often deceptive. Thou seest the difficulties in which I am placed. What do all my exertions avail? He doesn't know what it is. A soft answer turneth away wrath. Circumstances alter cases. He dares not do as he threatens. The correctness of these rules is doubtful. Six months' interest is due. There were many reasons for taking that course.

Under Rule IX.

A fleet of fifty vessels was seen approaching. A large part of the army were drowned. Has the Board of Commissioners adjourned? Congress consists of the Senate and House of Representatives. The Committee have carefully considered the matter. The people were duly notified. The public are respectfully informed. The entire regiment are running from the enemy. The audience were much pleased. A large crowd of people were present. The jury has been impaneled, but have not agreed. A pair consists of two. The happy pair have gone to Boston. One-half of my oranges are spoiled.

Under Rule X.

Industry and frugality lead to wealth. Wealth, honor, and happiness forsake the indolent. My flesh and my heart fail. In all his works there are sprightliness and vigor. My love and esteem toward thee remain unaltered. James, and also his brother, has left school. Study, and not play, engages his mind. Every man, every woman, and every child present was looking on. That brilliant scholar and teacher has died. To do good and to shun evil always bring happiness. No wife, no mother, no child was there to soothe his pain. Virtue, and virtue alone, is able to satisfy the heart. Every tree and every shrub now puts forth its buds.

Under Rule XI.

Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake. Either ability or inclination was wanting. Our happiness or misery mainly depends upon ourselves. Either John or his brother has done this. Neither poverty nor riches were the cause of his discontent. Neither I nor my father is able to do it. Neither John nor I was to blame. Neither the man nor his sons have been here. Either he or I am mistaken; or, Either he is mistaken, or I am. Either I or she is entitled to the prize; or, Either I am entitled to the prize, or she is. Neither art thou to blame, nor am I. To have brilliant talents, or to amass great riches, renders most persons very proud. Vanity, ambition, or sensuality leads many to ruin. No pains nor cost was spared in her education.

Under Rule XII.

Does he not waste his time, and neglect his lessons? He was elected to the office, but he would not serve. The pupil has been idle, and he will not improve. He was told to make haste, and he should have been there in time; or, Having been told to make haste, he should have been there in time. He was sick, and he could not do it; or, Being sick, he could not do it. William can learn his lesson, but he will not. They would neither go in themselves, nor suffer others to enter. I shall fail, and hence I must not undertake it.

Under Rule XIII.

We did not know that it was he. It could not have been she. It is not I that he is angry with. They believed it to be me. If I had been he, I should have done the same. I understood it to be him. Let

him be who he may. It was I that wrote the letter. Who do they say that I am? Whom do they think him to be? It is not he that you thought it was.

Under Rule XIV.

Every one must judge of his own feelings. Each of us had as much as he desired. Let every one of you attend to his own business. Those who are ready may come forward. I have done everything that you ordered. It was he that spoke. John committed the same mistake that he had made before. The lion which seemed so fierce was brought from Africa. This is the worst fault that he could have committed. I, who am your father, should be obeyed. For advice come to me, who am your friend. He has learned much from the people and customs that he has observed. Alexander was the greatest conqueror that the world ever saw. He that can take care of himself, requires no assistance. They who are idle and careless should have no aid from others. Who that is not blind could fail to see this? His influence was such as is rarely seen.

Under Rule XV.

The people will not relinquish their rights. The party disagreed in their views. The company has expelled two of its members. The committee has made its report. The jury will be confined until they agree on a verdict. The council were unanimous in their opinions. Where will the society hold its meetings? The court, in its wisdom, has decided otherwise. The army continued its retreat. The public will not give up their prejudices. The new board of directors has elected its officers. The parliament will take up the matter at its next session. The audience showed their approbation by applause.

Under Rule XVI.

Truth and honesty cannot fail of their reward. Cherish love and unity: they are the life of society. You and your playmates should learn your lessons. He and I respect our teacher. James, and also his brother, has recited his lessons. Sarah, and not Charlotte, has lost her book. Every plant, every flower, and every insect shows the wisdom of its Creator. You, your brother, and I must attend to our work.

Under Rule XVII.

Can justice or truth change its nature? One or the other must relinquish his claim. John or William will favor us with his company. Neither the watch nor the chain was ever restored to its owner. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow his neck to the yoke. Have you seen my ox or my cow? It has [or, both have] strayed from the pasture. Neither the girl nor the boy seemed to know his lessons; or, Neither did the girl know her lessons, nor the boy his.

Under Rule XVIII.

John and William's father chided them for their conduct; or, The father of John and William chided them, etc. Adam was Cain and Abel's father; or, the father of Cain and Abel. I have seen neither

William's nor Charles's book. The store of Smith & Company is closed. They paid a visit to the palace of the Queen of England. The death of Edward the Second was a shocking one. The reign of Louis XIV. was very brilliant. Did you ever read the wonderful adventures of Jack the Giant Killer? Brown's and Jones's houses will be occupied by the respective owners. The sayings of Socrates are recorded in the works of Plato and Xenophon. Horace's poems show great genius. Queen Elizabeth mourned greatly on account of the death of Essex.

Under Rule XIX.

Her I shall more readily forgive. Thee only have I chosen. Whom shall we send on this errand? My father allowed my brother and me to accompany him. Him that is idle and mischievous reprove sharply. Whom should I meet but my old friend? Whom do you think him to be? Me, and me only, must you charge with the offense. You who do wrong the teacher will punish. Tell me whom you mean. Let you and me avoid such company. He accosts whomsoever he meets.

Under Rule XX.

Let that remain a secret between you and me. I lent the book to some one, I know not whom. To whom did you give the message? It rests with thee and me to decide the matter. As to you and him, the case is very different. Except him and me, no one saw it.

Under Rule XXII.

Did you not see him take the article? Please to excuse my son's absence. I will try to do it for you. They need not call upon her. I have heard him mention the subject. They certainly heard the rule announced. Can I not make this matter understood by you? Bid the boys come in. They have been bidden to come in already. Let no rash promises be made. I dare say, he has not gone home yet.

Under Rule XXIII.

He will not be pardoned, unless he repent. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rain. Let him take heed lest he fall. If thou cast me off, I shall be helpless. I believed, whatever were the issue, all would be well. If he were an impostor, he must have been detected. If he was accused of theft, he was not convicted. Though he is deprived of his fortune, he is not unhappy.

Under Rule XXIV.

He having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed. I being without experience, they deceived me. They refusing to comply, I withdrew. The child is lost; and I, whither shall I go? Thou being present, he would not tell what he knew. Arise, O thou that sleepest! O wretched we! shut from the light of hope! Thou, too, Brutus, my son! He having absented himself, they could not proceed.

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